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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,II.

With an APPENDIX.

> "*Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quàm qui maximè laudari merentur.*"
>
> PLIN. l. vii. 20.

VOLUME XXXIX.

LONDON:
Printed by A. Strahan, Printers-Street,
For R. GRIFFITHS; and sold by T. BECKET, in Pall Mall.
M,DCCC,II.

240132

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For SEPTEMBER, 1802.

ART. I. *A Voyage up the Mediterranean*, in his Majesty's Ship the Swiftsure, one of the Squadron under the Command of Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B., now Viscount and Baron Nelson of the Nile, and Duke of Bronté in Sicily. With a Description of the Battle of the Nile on the 1st of August 1798, and a Detail of Events that occurred subsequent to the Battle in various Parts of the Mediterranean. By the Rev. Cooper Willyams, A. M.*, Chaplain of the Swiftsure, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 330, and 43 Plates. 3l. 13s. 6d. plain, 5l. 5s. coloured. Boards. White. 1802.

THE Mediterranean Sea, including its surrounding coasts, presents us with a rich and inexhaustible variety of the most interesting objects. Hence we obtain our religion, our elegant literature, and our knowlege of the fine arts: here we trace the several theatres on which the most renowned events of antient times have been transacted; and hither the modern historian, in recording the brilliant atchievements of the Navy and Army of Great Britain during the late war, must direct the attention of admiring posterity. This sea, washing Europe, Asia, and Africa, possesses a most varied as well as extensive line of coast; along which are displayed the choicest bounties of nature; and which, if peopled by men of wisdom, activity, and virtue, must become the most desirable parts of the globe. At present, however, the traveller observes with regret, among the various inhabitants of these countries, that, in consequence of miserable governments and ridiculous superstitions, the human character has been lamentably debased; and that those advantages, which Providence has bestowed, far from being improved, are wholly neglected. By comparing the present inhabitants of several of these districts with the accounts of their ancestors which history and even the remains of antiquity proclaim, human nature appears here to have undergone a most melancholy deterioration. The state of society seems to have greatly altered for the worse; and in some places the very face of the creation has evidently sympathized in this change,—or, to speak more properly, has been affected by it. In spite, however, of the feelings and reflections of the humane and enlightened observer, he will always discover, in visiting the coasts of the Mediterranean, much to satisfy his curiosity, to reward his toil, and to improve his mind.

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* Mr. W. published an account of the Campaign in the West Indies in 1794, under Sir John Jervis and Sir Charles Grey. See Rev. vol. xxv. page 421.

In the course of the voyage related in the volume before us, Mr. Willyams explores no new region and makes no discoveries: but he details the particulars of an expedition which reflects the highest honour on the Navy of his country; and, as he availed himself of every opportunity of visiting the different states on which his ship touched, and took sketches of every scene which he deemed worthy of notice, he has furnished for the public a very gratifying, amusing, and well embellished narrative. The ship of which he was Chaplain formed one of the squadron of Lord Nelson; he was present at the ever to be remembered Battle of the Nile, surveyed the coasts of Syria, was at Rhodes, on the coast of Natolia in Asia Minor, at Syracuse, Palermo, and Naples; travelled over Tuscany and a great part of Italy; and again embarking, his course was directed to the island of Minorca, the renowned rock of Gibraltar, and Lisbon. Thus his observations, though they do not embrace every shore of the Mediterranean, include a considerable portion of it.

The very nature of Mr. W.'s journal renders it somewhat desultory, and it generally refers to objects which have been often described; yet it is on the whole written with ease and interest; and the assurance of fidelity as well in the drawings as in the descriptions must stamp on it considerable value. *Quicquid Græcia mendax audet in historia* is a licence in which tourists have often indulged themselves; and, when composing their journals, in order to produce astonishment in the reader, they have not scrupled (as the seamen would say) to put truth *under the hatches*: but the author before us, as an upright divine and an honest sailor, disclaims such mean conduct, and keeps truth always *on deck*. He thus speaks of himself:

> 'Placed as he was in the midst of a battle as splendid and extraordinary as the page of history has ever recorded, an attendant of the chase which preceded it, and of many interesting occurrences and scenes which the shores of the Mediterranean exhibited for nearly two years after its termination, he daily minuted with his pen and pencil the observations and images which obtruded them-

selves

selves upon him. The authenticity of such memorials, and the views of places and people, which the present as well as the past has rendered subjects of such warm curiosity and interest, may, as his friends flatter him, give a value to his simple diary, and the sketches, even if unskilful, of a self-taught artist. All know how soon the numberless minutiæ now vivid in the memories of the actors would yield to the pressure of more recent occupations, and fade away without a record: but these pages will furnish remembrances of their activity and glory, on which they may look back with pleasure; and where their posterity may hereafter be proud to point out their names.

'After what has been said, it will not be expected that the accounts of places here described should be loaded with the endless learning connected with them, on which many would find no difficulty to pour out the contents of libraries, and extend the work to bulky volumes. There seem indeed neither bounds nor use in such repetitions. But if there were, it was not the present author's purpose to expatiate beyond the occurrences which fell within his own experience; for the scanty aid which the very few books of a naval life supplied, would alone have precluded him from the attempt. Yet he has since endeavoured occasionally to vary and enliven his narrative by a few references to ancient events: this liberty, however, has been very sparingly exercised.

'Too many books of travels and voyages are ornamented by fictitious views, as well as embellished relations. The reader may be assured that the drawings from which the plates of this volume were copied are genuine, and that they were taken on the spot by the same hand, and at the same time, which wrote the journal. This agreement of time and place will, he trusts, ensure the accuracy and peculiarity of his work.'

Mr. W. has given a very clear and circumstantial description of the Battle of the Nile, with a general chart of the Mediterranean, on which are marked the different tracks of the two hostile fleets, and also a plan of the combat when they met. It would highly gratify us to transcribe this detail: but, as various accounts of this brilliant action have been already exhibited, we shall in its stead insert his reflections on the advantageous circumstances which, in point of time, rendered it as important for us as it was glorious:

'The victory obtained over this fleet at once destroyed all the pleasing dreams of future conquests in the East, which Buonaparté had hitherto indulged. Cut off from a possibility of receiving the promised reinforcements from France, by the annihilation of its fleet, he foresaw that the utmost he could now hope for, was to secure a safe situation for his army in the country where he was. The great change of opinion among his newly acquired subjects, occasioned by the event of this battle, which convinced them that their invaders were not invincible, made his situation sufficiently uneasy, without any other circumstances to render it more so; but of them too he had a sufficient share.

'Had the storm which damaged Rear-Admiral Nelson's ship, when first he came into the Mediterranean, continued longer than it did, he would in all probability have been disabled from further exertions at that time; by this gale the Toulon fleet was detained longer in port, which gave an opportunity to Commodore Troubridge to form a junction with the Admiral. At length the French fleet sailed from Toulon, and proceeded by Sardinia to Malta; but we made our course for Naples, and missed them. Had our squadron fallen in with the enemy previous to the capture of Malta, and had a battle been fought, though it had terminated in our favour, as, in all humility, we may suppose, the utmost that we could have done would have been to have captured several of their men of war, and dispersed the rest; but as we well know, in such an event, our own ships must have suffered much, the rest of the convoy with troops might have escaped, and proceeding to its destination, would have effected its purpose; in which case the natives of Egypt would have been ignorant of the naval defeat of their invaders, and would have had no hopes of future succour from us; and from the crippled state of our ships, without a port to go to for repairs, the French would have been enabled to pour in fresh supplies of men and ammunition, and the fertile banks of the Nile would, without opposition, have been completely subjugated by the power of the invader. The same may be said had the two fleets met, as was expected, on the 22d of June, when they crossed each other in the night. But now their fleet, which was to have secured to them a safe retreat in case of failure, or if success had crowned their efforts, was to have convoyed fresh supplies from the mother country, was annihilated, all hopes of retreat were cut off, all prospect of reinforcements was destroyed.'

Much has been said concerning the remarkable manner in which Lord Nelson and the French Fleet missed each other on their way to the coast of Egypt. Mr. Willyams states some particulars which explain this singular circumstance:

'On the 22d of June, at daylight in the morning, the Mutine spoke a Genoese brig from Malta, and received information from her, that the French had sailed from thence on the 18th instant with a fresh gale from the north-west.

'The Admiral now determined to sail for Alexandria; though uncertain what course the enemy had taken, he judged that to be their probable destination, and accordingly made the signal to bear up and steer south-east with all possible sail.

'Every mind now anxiously looked forward to the glorious conflict; but what would have been our feelings if we could then have foreseen that the French fleet was to pass us in the following night? Such, however, was the case, as we afterwards learned from consulting and comparing the journals of French officers made prisoners in and after the action. It appears almost incredible that a fleet consisting of near four hundred sail of various descriptions, should cross an adverse fleet of fourteen sail of the line, even in the darkest night, without some of them being discovered, yet so it was. We sailed on in expectation that they had got the start of us by several days, and they shaped their course across our track, making a more northern tour by the island of Candia, wrapped in perfect security, and unconscious that any adverse fleet of force sufficient to alarm them was at that moment in those seas.'

The disappointment of our fleet, on first arriving at Alexandria, is well known; and the Admiral returned to Syracuse, to procure fresh provisions;

'During the time our fleet was in the Bay of Syracuse, Admiral Nelson was impatiently expecting some intelligence of the route of the enemy. From neutral vessels that occasionally entered the port he could gain no certain information: but a vague report reached him, that the enemy were not in the Adriatic, had not been seen in the Archipelago, and were certainly not gone to the westward. From hence he judged that Egypt must be their destination: and though it appeared extraordinary that in our voyage to Alexandria and back to Syracuse, we had neither seen or heard of them; yet, in his own mind, he was confident that Egypt was their object, and he once more determined to proceed thither.

'That we did pass by the French fleet in our former voyage to Alexandria, has been ascertained to have happened between the 22d and 23d of June. To account for this circumstance I shall observe, that the French steered their course for Candia, making an angular passage to Alexandria: we, on the contrary, made a direct push for that place; and though it happened at what is generally understood to be the narrow part of these seas, yet the distance of thirty-five leagues between Candia and the shores of Africa, affords ample room for two of the largest fleets to pass each other without observation. But when it is considered that by the inferiority of our numbers we were constrained to sail in a compact body, that we had no frigates to look out, and that the hazy atmosphere in this climate precluded a distant view, the surprise will vanish.

'That this circumstance should occur, will to a seaman appear not an extraordinary matter.

'The cause why, on our return *from* Alexandria, we missed them will be easily understood by referring to the chart, in which I have marked down the tracks of the hostile fleets. It will there be seen that we made a circuitous route northward at the time the French fleet bore down to Alexandria in a direct line from Candia. We have since been informed that on the evening of the 30th of June, the French appeared off the coast of Egypt, and early in the morning of the same day our fleet was seen from the towers of Alexandria. If we had remained only a few hours longer on the coast we must have fallen in with them previous to their landing. But Providence ordered it otherwise. And from subsequent events we have every reason to believe that our success has been more complete, and the final destruction of their vast armament been rendered more decisive than if our own sanguine wishes had taken effect.'

The events of war are sufficiently horrible, even when mitigated by the principles of honour and humanity: but when neither of these are exercised towards a prostrate foe, they are afflicting in the extreme. Mr. W. complains that the French were deficient in many instances, in this respect, towards their prisoners; and if the facts be as he relates them, they are open to the severest censure. Be this, however, as it may; our religion and our feelings call on us to reprobate, in the strongest terms, the wanton cruelty and murder which, as we learn from the subsequent account, were inflicted on a part of the crew of a French vessel by the Arabs. We know not that this anecdote has hitherto been laid before the public: but he who reads it must wish that we had kept possession of Egypt, if it had been only for the purpose of diffusing the principles of civilization among the wretched inhabitants of that part of the globe:

'The next day the Emerald made a signal for a sail bearing E. by S. We accordingly gave chace, and off the Tower of Arabs saw a cutter standing towards the shore; the Emerald fired several shot to bring her to, but she persisted, and at length ran aground a little to the west of the Tower of Marabou; our boats, and those of the Emerald, were sent to bring her off: the French, in the mean time, made good their landing; but a high surf soon destroyed the cutter. At this moment nothing was to be seen but barren uncultivated sands as far as the eye could reach; but in a short time we descried several Arabs advance, some on horseback, others on foot. The French now perceived their error, but it was too late; some of them indeed were so fortunate as to get on board our boats which pulled towards the shore in hopes of saving their unfortunate enemy, and a midshipman from the Emerald, with a noble spirit of humanity, threw himself into the water and swam through a high surf to the shore; having a rope in his hand, by which the French captain and four seamen were saved. From him we learned, that the cutter was called l'Anemone, of 4 guns and 60 men, Citizen Gardon commander; having on board General Carmin, and Captain Valette, aid de camp of General Bonaparté; also a courier with dispatches, and a party of soldiers; that the cutter sailed from Toulon on the 17th of July, and touched at Malta, from which place she had taken her departure six days. Perceiving there was no possibility of escape from us, the General ordered Captain Gardon to run the cutter ashore, who urged the dangers of a high surf, and the numerous hordes of wild Arabs that infested the coast. The General said he would cut his way through them to Alexandria, which was not more than two or three leagues off, the towers and minarets being plainly to be seen. No sooner had he landed, however, and perceived the Bedouins, who till this time were hid behind the sand-hills, but now began to shew themselves, than dismay and terror seized on all: nor could we behold their distress without commiseration, although they had so entirely brought it on themselves by refusing to surrender to us, and had fired on our boats when escape was no longer in their power. Our people approached the shore as near as the breakers would permit them, and were repeatedly hailed by the French to be taken on board; but only Captain Gardon and four men were brought off. We perceived that the officers and men suffered themselves to be stripped without resistance. Many were murdered in cold blood, and apparently without any cause; and among them the unfortunate General, and Aid de Camp, who, on their knees, entreated for mercy. An Arab, on horseback, unslung his carbine and drew the trigger, but the piece did not go off; he renewed the priming, and again presented at the General, but the shot killed the Aid de Camp, who was on his knees a little behind him; he then with a pistol fired at the General, who instantly fell. The courier also, who endeavoured to escape, was pursued and murdered. An Arab who got possession of his dispatches instantly rode away with them, and we have since learned, that they were afterwards recovered by the French for a sum of money.'

The English are universally allowed to fight with as much fairness as gallantry: but, as the enemy have accused us of departing from our general rule in the battle of the Nile, an anecdote which Mr. W. records ought not to be omitted:

'While on the Egyptian coast we had frequent communications with the enemy. At one time the Commander in Chief sent two officers to offer us a supply of vegetables: from our long cruize on this inhospitable coast, he concluded we must be in want of such refreshments; yet we had the ingratitude to think that his civility was only a cover for his curiosity; it was natural to suppose he wished to know the state we were in, and how we bore the privations attendant on such a long and unprofitable cruize. Being aware of this, all possible civilities were shown to the French officers; and that they might be the better able to judge of our abilities to continue on that station, they were conducted into the several parts of the ship, even to the lower decks. They could not conceal their surprise at the healthiness of our people, the cheerfulness that appeared on their countenances, and the regularity and good order that reigned throughout.

'In the course of conversation after dinner one of them remarked, that we had made use of unfair weapons during the late action, by which, probably, the Admiral's ship l'Orient was burnt; and that General Bonaparté had expressed great indignation at it. In proof of this assertion he stated, that, in the late gun-boat attacks, their camp had twice been on fire, occasioned by balls of unextinguishable matter which were fired from one of the English boats. Captain Hallowell instantly ordered the gunner to bring up some of those balls, and asked him from whence he had them. To the confusion of the accusers, he related that they were found on board of the Spartiate, one of the ships captured on the 1st of August.

'As these balls were distinguished by particular marks, though in other respects alike, the Captain ordered an experiment to be made in order to ascertain the nature of them.

'The next morning I accompanied Mr. Parr, the gunner, to the island; the first we tried proved to be a fire-ball, but of what materials composed, we could not ascertain. As it did not explode, which at first we apprehended, we rolled it into the sea, where it continued to burn under water; a black pitchy substance exuding from it till only an iron skeleton of a shell remained. The whole had been carefully crusted over with a substance that gave it the appearance of a perfect shell. On setting fire to the fuse of the other, which was differently marked, it burst into many pieces; though somewhat alarmed, fortunately none of us were hurt.'

Here the calumny recoils with tenfold disgrace on the calumniator.—Though Mr. Willyams appears to be fond of the sea, he takes every opportunity of getting on shore; and on all these occasions he makes a good use of his eyes, his pencil, and his pen. As one example of his land observations, we shall subjoin a part of his account of Rhodes:

'The city of Rhodes no longer presents that splendid appearance that it formerly did when under the dominion of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, though many of its buildings recall them to the traveller's recollection. Over one of the gates is still to be seen a stone shield with the Cross of the Order; and the buildings are of that kind we denominate Gothic, and discover many traces of their former beauty. The ridiculous display of artillery, which the Turks are fond of, evidently demonstrates their ignorance of its proper use: the castle that commands the entrance of their harbours is loaded with guns of every description, and even every small hole and window has some fire-arms sticking out of it, such as blunderbusses, trombones, muskets, and pistols. On a platform between the two gates are several Colossal pieces of ordnance, not on carriages, but resting on stones, or on the ground, so that no alteration can be made in their elevation or direction; from these are fired large balls of marble, made from the statues and other pieces of sculpture which formerly adorned the city. Within the walls is a building which still retains the appearance of a monastery; it is a quadrangle surrounded with cloisters, and is now converted into a guard-house and arsenal, where we saw large piles of marble bullets of various dimensions, from the size of a twelve-pounder, to that of an eighteen-inch shell. The folding-doors of this building are of oak, and highly ornamented with carved work of the same Gothic or Saracenic order which is to be seen in our ancient cathedrals. Near this place, in a wretched hovel, were crowded the officers and crew of a French frigate lately captured in the port. Our commiseration for the fate of these men, thus reduced to the most abject slavery, was strongly excited, and they experienced from us that compassion and assistance their wretched condition demanded, and we were enabled to afford them. We next went into the bazar, or market-place, where nothing but dirt and indolence seemed to reign; from thence we proceeded to the land-gates, and were surprised at the strength of the fortifications in that quarter, but we found them in a state of dilapidation which plainly discovered that the present possessors were not the founders.

'Crossing the bridge, we perceived a party of people in the fosse (which is now a dry lawn) amusing themselves with the athletic game of wrestling. A stout negro and a small white man were at this time the combatants. They were both stripped to the skin, having only leathern drawers on well saturated with oil, with which also their bodies were smeared. Although they exhibited very little skill in the exercise, yet the method of preparing themselves for it, brought to our recollection Virgil's description of the same pastime;

'Exercent patrias oleo labente palæstras
Nudati socii * :——— Æn. lib. iii. v. 281.

'In all probability the present inhabitants of this island derived the custom from the Romans, who were formerly masters of it and the neighbouring states.

'From thence we entered into an open place of great extent which is used as a burial ground. The multitude of small stone pillars, some of them surmounted with turbans, which denote them to be the tombs of men, and others plain, for those of the women, have a very striking appearance. Beyond this we entered on the suburbs, which rise on the side of a hill that entirely commands the city. The long narrow alleys surrounded with high walls, the houses having no windows visible, and the solemn silence that constantly reigns there, made us happy to emerge into the country, and there we had no great cause to admire the character of the present possessors of this once justly admired place, as cultivation is sadly neglected: indeed the only people who seem to have any activity or industry are the Greeks, and they are kept in such subjection that all spirit of commerce must be cramped, if not entirely smothered.'

The detail of operations during our attacks on Aboukir, in the month of October, affords many records of the cowardice of our Turkish allies; and an anecdote, which we shall now transcribe, represents them in still worse colours:

'Some of the Turkish gun-boats were now brought so near the battery as to use their muskets, and the business was beginning to grow very serious, when, from the dastardly conduct of the Turks in one of the boats, which threw some of the rest into confusion, the action was obliged to be discontinued. Captain Hallowell had directed Lieutenant Witts of the marines to anchor his gun-boat, which he was in the act of doing, and his seamen busy about the anchor, when the Turks, made desperate by their fears, rose upon our unarmed people, and with their sabres began to cut them down. Our sailors in the launch, as well as a Russian boat, seeing the situa-

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'* Our youth their naked limbs besmear with oil,
And exercise the wrestler's noble toil.
Dryden's Trans. Æn. iii. l. 364.'

tion of our men, some of whom had jumped overboard to avoid the strokes of the Turkish scymetars, immediately flew to their assistance, and first throwing in arms to them, were preparing to follow them, when fortunately Captain Hallowell, who perceived the confusion, boarded her, and soon put an end to the fray; the Turks being now as mean in their humility as before they were ferocious in their attack upon unarmed men. All this time the vessel was drifting towards the shore, but was fortunately put about before she grounded. An English seaman seeing one of his comrades cut down by a Turk, instantly attacked the Mussulman with a wooden handspike and beat out his brains: the commander of the gun-boat was also wounded.'

The author went in the Torride Gun-Brig to the mouth of the Nile, for fresh water; and he says:

'We did not come unattended to this business; no sooner did she sail from the fleet, than several of the Turkish armed vessels got under weigh, not daring to trust themselves so near a French post, without being protected by some British vessel. We went on board one of them, at the request of her commander, and found her to be a handsome vessel, mounting twelve guns, six and nine pounders. The Captain (who was from the island of Candia) informed us, that though under the command of the Grand Signor, the vessel was his own property. Being willing to entertain us in the best manner possible, he ordered supper instantly to be brought in: it consisted of boiled fish and cheese swimming in clear oil. As I had my cue, I fell to work with my fingers, and pinching a piece out, prevented our entertainer from doing it for me; and in a short time this curious dish was dispatched. He then, in defiance of the laws of Mahomet, set before us some excellent Candiote wine, of which he swallowed such large potions as plainly indicated his contempt for the ordinances of his prophet. That our entertainment might be complete, he resolved to treat us with a concert: a wretched ragged Greek made his appearance, bearing a little guitar with three strings, and another accompanied it with his voice; but the music (if it deserved the name) was so intolerably bad, that none but Turkish ears could be delighted with it, and we were glad to retreat from such a medley of discordant sounds. Our vessel having obtained her cargo of water, gave us an opportunity of doing so without giving offence. We accordingly got on board, and sailed for the squadron, and our Turkish convoy made haste to follow us.'

A curious trait of our *Neapolitan Friends*, also, is thus related, and affords matter for reflection:

'Soon after the arrival of Lord Nelson at Naples after the victory he had obtained over the French fleet off the Nile, his Sicilian Majesty formed a design of driving the French from the frontiers of his dominions, as well as from Rome itself. Accordingly having collected a large army, amounting, it is said, to a hundred thousand men, he made rapid marches, and soon came up with the French forces; but though he might now have surrounded them, he contented himself with ordering them to evacuate his own territories and those of the Holy Pontiff. Accordingly they retreated till they reached Rome; where, fortifying themselves in the castle of St. Angelo, they resolved to defend themselves, and proceed no farther. From some unknown cause the king suddenly retreated with much expedition to Naples, and his late numerous army disappeared. This cause has been thus explained to me. His Majesty having embraced a plan of setting up the commissions in his army to sale, and many persons having bought their rank, though they were known to possess no property, it is believed that the French lost not the opportunity to furnish them with the money. The consequence is obvious. Of course they took good care not to act against their benefactors.'

We have heard much of the severities exercised by the Neapolitan Government on its disaffected subjects, after it had regained possession of its power; and particularly of the execution of the Admiral Carracecioli. On these subjects, Mr. Willyams's statements are not uninteresting:

'During the five weeks in which these events (the sieges of St. Elmo and Capua by the British) were carried on, Captain Hood had an arduous task to fulfil at Naples, where he commanded a body of seamen who had taken post in Castel Nuovo. The Calabrese, as well as Russians and Turks, had entertained hopes that Naples was to have been given up to plunder; and the Cardinal, through whose means they had been thus marched from the furthest extremity of the Neapolitan dominions, had no power to curb their lawless acts, which broke out in various excesses. Captain Hood, by his firm and prudent conduct, at length succeeded in restoring good order; and it was remarked that Naples (so lately torn by intestine broils and revolutionary fury) never, in the most peaceable times, enjoyed a greater degree of tranquillity than under his government.

'Previous to his taking this command, divers atrocious acts of cruelty, and murders attended with circumstances of the most savage nature, were perpetrated in the face of day. One of these, that I witnessed, will be sufficient to relate here in proof of this assertion. An unfortunate gentleman, suspected of being a jacobin or rebel, was dragged wounded out of the house he had been concealed in, and in an instant was stripped and cut to pieces; his mangled limbs were drawn about the streets, and his head roasted before a fire kindled in them for that purpose. Some of our officers who were passing by, and obliged to witness the last scene of horror, of course expressed their concern and disgust at it, to the no small astonishment of the mob.

'During these transactions his Majesty the King of Naples arrived in the Seahorse from Palermo. He first went to Procida, but the day following came on board the Foudroyant, bearing the flag of Rear-Admiral Lord Nelson; and his Majesty was received with a royal salute from the whole fleet.

'At this time several Neapolitan insurgents were tried, condemned, and executed; among the rest Admiral Carraccioli. He had formerly distinguished himself by his zeal and courage when he commanded a Neapolitan squadron, and fought under the command of a British admiral. This unfortunate man had retired with his Sovereign to Sicily; perceiving that no steps were likely to be taken by his court to oppose the new order of things at Naples, he requested and obtained leave to return thither for the purpose of securing, if possible, his large property in that quarter. His known courage and abilities then pointed him out, both to his countrymen and the French, as a proper man to head the marine whenever it should be formed; and he entered with zeal into the service. Perhaps he thought, as many others have thought, that the king's abdication of his throne, without making so strenuous an opposition as he might have done to the revolutionary system, and his quitting his capital several weeks before any enemy approached it, might plead his excuse for joining those who were now resolved to erect a new government, since they were abandoned by their old. Be that as it may, he was tried by a Neapolitan court-martial on board the Foudroyant, condemned, and executed the same day on board a Neapolitan frigate then lying off the Mole.'

The profession of Mr. Willyams in course excited in him a desire, when on the coast of Palestine, to visit the scene of our Saviour's ministry, and he attempted to reach Jerusalem: but the journey could not be safely accomplished. He was not idle, however, for he took several views in Syria; and the following description accompanies his sketches of and from the top of Mount Carmel:

'We hastened to enjoy a ramble into the adjacent country: proceeding out of the western gate, we turned to the left, and ascended the hill which rises immediately behind the town. At the distance of a quarter of a mile we arrived at a square castle, with only one small entrance, and quite unornamented by architectural embellishments. It appears to have been formed more for the purpose of overawing the town than of defending it. From thence we continued to ascend through a grove of olives till we arrived at a steep and rocky path, by which we, at length, reached the top of Mount Carmel.

'From this height we had a delightful view of the surrounding romantic country. Directly under us appeared the town of Caiffe; to the right extended a level plain of apparently rich land, watered by the rivers Belus and Kishon, and bounded by the mountains of Nazareth [*].

'On

' [*] It was not possible to view this country without calling to mind the wonderful events that have occurred in it at various periods from the earliest times; more particularly, the sacred life and history of our Redeemer, pressed foremost on our minds. One thing struck me in the form of the houses in the town now under our view, which corroborate the account of former travellers in this country, several passages of scripture, particularly the following.

In

'On the northern side of the Bay, on the sea-shore, is situated the city of St. Jean d'Acre; above which, among the mountains, we perceived a large castle, but could learn no account to whom it belonged; it had very much the appearance of those strong holds we read of in romances. Over these mountains, at the distance of twenty miles, the towering heights of Mount Lebanon raised their snowy heads. The summit of Carmel, though perfectly wild and uncultivated, had its peculiar beauties. Small grass-plots of the finest herbage were surrounded by flowering shrubs of various kinds; among which the arbutus and dwarf-oak bore a conspicuous character. The acorns of the latter feed the wild boars, which are numerous in this country. Of these animals we were fortunate enough to procure two, which, when brought on board, proved a delightful repast to men who had been at a short allowance of salt provisions for six weeks, and to our palates were preferable to the finest venison. Whether it was that circumstance or not, I cannot undertake to determine, but we certainly thought the flesh had much more the flavour of venison than of pork.

'But to return to Carmel: the western extremity extends towards the sea, where it terminates in an abrupt point, on which is a monastery of Carmelite monks, that takes its name from the mountain. This monastery is the parent stock of the religious houses bearing the same appellation in Europe. Beyond this point, the Mediterranean sea presented an expanse of water farther than the eye could reach. After enjoying the prospect which the scenery around us so amply afforded, we descended towards the eastern side of the town; near the base of the mountain we came to several caverns, which by the natives are called the Seven Caves; they appear to have been the foundations and undercrofts of spacious buildings, of which, except these hollows, not a vestige remains.'

While the author was on the coast of Naples, he ascended Vesuvius, and visited the excavations of Pompeii and other

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In Matth. ch. xxiv. v. 17, our blessed Saviour in describing the distresses which shortly would overwhelm the land of Judea, tells his disciples,' that "when the abomination of desolation is seen standing in the holy place, let him (says he) which is on the house top not come down to take any thing out of his house, but fly," &c. The houses, in this country, are all flat roofed and communicate with each other; a person there might proceed to the city walls and escape into the country without coming down into the street. Though I am aware that it may be objected that this and most of the places now existing are of a much later date than the times when this prophecy was pronounced; yet as the dress and appearance of these people have suffered little change, so, in all probability, the general form of the buildings has been transmitted, and, though meanly, copied.'

Mr. Harmer, in his observations on Scripture, endeavours to illustrate this text by referring to the Eastern custom of the stair-case being on the outside of the House: but Mr. Willyams's representation seems to afford a more complete elucidation of the passage. *Rev.*

curiosities in that neighbourhood. In his rambles through Italy, he reached the convent of Vallombrosa; and, as a justification of Milton's simile, he gives a drawing of this truly umbrageous region,

"Where th' Etrurian shades
High over-arch'd embow'r." - - - -

We cannot, however, follow him in his rapid journeys to Florence, to Venice, to Mantua, &c. &c.: but, after having seen him safely on board again, we must accompany him to the island of Minorca, and make an extract from his sketch of it:

'The roads in Minorca are rough and stony: the whole island indeed presents a barren prospect of rocks, covered in some places with a thin soil, which, by the industry of the inhabitants, produces tolerable corn. The gullies, or small valleys, where the soil is deeper, by the frequent accumulations washed into them by torrents of rain, are fertile, and bear excellent vegetables. They are also planted with fig-trees and vines.

'The harbour of Mahon is perhaps the best in the world, being capable of holding a great number of ships, and having depth of water for the largest man of war to ride in perfect safety. It is landlocked on all sides with numerous coves, in which the merchantmen are brought close to the shore, while the rocky crags rising perpendicularly from the water's edge, are high enough to shelter them from the heaviest gales. In the centre of the harbour, on an elevated island, is the naval hospital, admirably calculated for the health and convenience of the invalids.'—

'The common mode of conveyance in Minorca is on mules and asses, though there are also many horses kept; but the former are generally more surefooted on the rocky roads. The ass, here called Boreco, is of a large kind, and rendered by good keep and care in its management very tractable, and is a much handsomer animal than those of England The mule of Minorca is also very handsome, and often is found of an extraordinary size; I have seen a grey one that measured full sixteen hands high. The Honourable Colonel Paget of the 28th regiment had one of peculiar elegance in shape and colour, and of remarkable activity, but not of the largest size. There are plenty of partridges on the island, which afforded good sport to our officers. The heat during the summer is very oppressive, and frequently proves fatal to new comers. The troops lately encamped under the command of Brigadier-General Stuart, had lost many men by sickness. In the autumn and winter, the sudden transition from extreme heat to sharp cold weather is very prejudicial to Englishmen, who seldom take those precautions that almost all foreigners do, to vary their dress accordingly. The habit of the Minorquin women is very remarkable, and differs more from modern Europeans than any I had seen. At first landing I mistook the women for nuns of the mendicant order. They are long waisted, and wear a piece of muslin, and sometimes black crape, under their chins, which, rising up on each side of the face, joins a handkerchief drawn tight across the forehead; over this they have a large piece of muslin, which extends from the top of the head downwards like a cloak. Some of them wear red mantles lappelled, and joined at the back with yellow ribbands; below this, their hair, which is tied close to the head, is suffered to hang loose in form and quantity like a horse's tail.

'Their petticoats reach but a little below the knee, of course they are remarkably attentive to the decorations of their legs and feet, which are universally, from the highest to the lowest, clothed in clean white stockings and neat round-toed shoes. The Minorquin ladies, it is said, wish much to adopt the more elegant dress of the English, but either from some jealous fancy, or a regard to the ancient costumé of their country, the men will not permit it. The men, indeed, have accommodated themselves to the more modern fashions, and have nothing very particular in their appearance, except the priests, whose immense flapped beavers overshadow them like an umbrella.

'An annexed drawing thus represents the mode of making butter in this country: The dairy woman is standing under a shed, and holding by two pegs in the wall to steady herself, while with one foot naked she stamps in a tub of cream till it becomes butter.'

Hence Mr. W. passed to Gibraltar and Lisbon; and returning to the former place on board the Kent, he took his passage in the Anson for England.

As an Appendix, the subsequent misfortune of the Swiftsure, in being captured by Admiral Gantheaume's squadron, is related; and here the author is able to record one instance, at least, of the good behaviour of the French towards their prisoners; for he speaks in high terms of the humanity and courage of that French officer.

Mr. Willyams submits his book with diffidence to the public eye: conscious (as he says) that his habits and pursuits have not qualified him for the claims of literary merit: but we see not this deficiency; and the work bears many marks of its author's remembrance of the classical studies of his younger days. Each chapter is introduced either with a Latin or Italian motto; which, for the benefit of his unlearned readers, he has translated in the table of contents.—Where so much amusement has been afforded us, it might be considered as ungrateful to point out little negligences of style; such, however, we have noticed in perusal; and we hope that, in a subsequent edition, they will be corrected *. Mr. W.'s sentiments are

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* At p. 48. we observe an inaccuracy of statement, in respect to names. Speaking of Sir James Saumarez's capture of a French frigate, at the commencement of the war, instead of *the Circe* (as the captor) we should read *the Crescent*, and instead of *the Crescent* (as the captured) we should read *La Re-union.*

are truly loyal and patriotic; and his narrative will be perused by all true Englishmen with great satisfaction.

In addition to the letter-press, this volume contains a General Chart of the Mediterranean, and numerous acquatinta views of various scenes and occurrences, which were all taken on the spot by Mr. Willyams. They reflect much credit on his talents, and will be highly acceptable to his readers.

ART. II. *General Zoology;* or, Systematic Natural History. By George Shaw, M. D. F. R. S. &c.; with Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens. Engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vols. I. II. and III. in two Parts each. 8vo. 5l. 8s. Boards. (Large Paper, 9 Guineas.) Kearsley. 1800—1802.

FROM the modest advertisement and introduction prefixed to this publication, we learn that the author's design is to sketch a system of Zoology, principally founded on the Linnéan arrangement, with such occasional corrections and enlargements as the progressive state of natural history may be expected to supply. In a similar walk, the late Comte de Buffon, and our countryman Mr. Pennant, gathered ample laurels: but neither of them exhibited a display of the whole department of animated nature. While the French orator blended his eloquent reveries with the language of science, affected to depreciate distinctive characters, and betrayed a facility of belief and a licence of fancy unworthy of a philosopher, the British systematist was not always sufficiently careful to enliven his more solid page with those traits of habit and manner, which must ultimately constitute the charm of zoological writing. A work, then, was still wanting, which should delineate, in a methodical yet popular form, the history of those numerous tribes of beings which share the physical destinies of man, and have proceeded from the same grand source of creative power and goodness. Fortunately for the public, this task has devolved on a gentleman whose talents and opportunities eminently qualify him for discharging it with fidelity and reputation. The high expectations with which we sat down to his book have not been disappointed; and we are enabled to commend equally the propriety of the plan, and the diligence of the execution.

The first and second volumes, each consisting of two parts, comprize the *Mammalia*, or viviparous quadrupeds. Dr. Shaw's plan is to exhibit the genuine and specific characters, a list of synonyms, and a particular account of each species. The references, as far as we have had leisure to collate them, are laudably accurate; and we have not detected a single *wanton* deviation from the language or classification of the Swedish naturalist. The author observes that,

> 'With respect to figures, those highly important accompaniments to a work of this kind, no care has been spared to give such as convey the clearest and most accurate ideas of the animals themselves. Where Buffon's figures were judged unexceptionable, they have been admitted: others are introduced from publications of the first respectability, from original drawings, or from those rich repositories of science, the British and Leverian Museums.
>
> 'The talents of the engraver, to whose care they have been committed, are too well known to require particular commendation.
>
> 'The remaining volumes will be published in regular order, and with as much dispatch as is consistent with the accuracy required in a systematic work on Natural History.'

Accuracy of painting and perspicuity of expression distinguish the present descriptions from those of many of the author's predecessors. The candour, judgment, and discrimination with which he has selected his materials,—the diffidence with which he records doubtful allegations,—the temper with which he prosecutes his inquiries, removed alike from scepticism and credulity,—his apparent freedom from preconceived opinions,—his uniform and respectful intimations of the sources whence he derives his materials,—and the singular felicity with which he has adapted the tenor of his writing to the disciple of Linné and the common reader,—all intitle him to very singular praise.

A preliminary dissertation, on the principles of animal physiology, would form no unsuitable introduction to a system of zoology; yet, since all general truths result from extended inductions, and receive their illustrations from particular examples, the abstract discussion arising out of a complex subject may, with more propriety, be reserved for the conclusion.

The extensive genus *Simia*, distributed into *apes*, *baboons*, *monkeys*, and *sapajous*, is delineated with due discrimination, yet without prolixity. Vosmaer's very entertaining account of the Oran Otan has been introduced with judgment and effect. Should the fastidious reader surmise that the notices of its congeners are few and meager, the answer, though not the most consoling in the world, is nevertheless true—namely, that the same objection must attach to many recitals of exotic animals, because thousands have traversed sea and land in pursuit of wealth or conquest, for one whose wanderings have been prompted by the love of knowlege; and the domestic student of nature is often condemned to have recourse to lame or exaggerated narratives, to the shadows of animals pining in confinement,

finement, and to the shrunk and mutilated specimens of a cabinet.—With respect to *Simia* and other genera, Dr. Shaw honestly remarks that the species are often so nearly allied, that it is extremely difficult to assign characters really distinct. Artificial arrangements are, in fact, necessary to aid the memory and facilitate our researches: but Nature not unfrequently makes sport of our lines of demarcation, and, blending her varieties by insensible shades, retires like a coy maid from the prying eye of the nomenclator. The Doctor observes with great justness, in another place, that short specific characters, though highly useful, are not always worthy of dependance: but that most of those which were composed by Linné are remarkable for their truth and exactitude.

To the lovers of strict method, the *Lemur* genus likewise presents doubts and difficulties, which are here resolved as far as authentic documents will permit.—Sir William Jones's minutes of the *Tardigradus* (which ought no longer to be confounded with the *Loris*) will naturally arrest the attention of every reader of taste and sensibility.—Geoffroy's proposed new arrangement of the Lemurs is here annexed to the descriptions, and dismissed with the following brief but judicious comment:

> 'From the above distribution, it should seem that Mons. Geoffroy has considered some animals of this genus as distinct species, which are, perhaps, rather varieties. It may also be added, that if this exact observation of the teeth were attended to, the genus Vespertilio might with equal propriety be distributed into several distinct genera; but it may be doubted whether the study of Natural History would be facilitated by such an arrangement.'

To those who have not perused Pallas's memoir on the flying *Colugo*, that article, as reduced in the present work, must prove highly acceptable.

Some valuable remarks on the history of the *Bat* are quoted from the late ingenious Mr. White of Selborne. Our attention is also drawn to the curious fact discovered by the Abbé Spallanzani, that blinded Bats avoid striking against objects in their flight. Without having recourse to the Abbé's *additional sense*, or to Mr. Carlisle's hypothesis of exquisite *hearing*, may we not suggest a peculiar delicacy of *feeling*, or irritability of the nervous system, which may be awake to every modification of change in the surrounding air, that depends on the presence or absence of intervening objects? At all events, the fact being ascertained, we perfectly agree with Dr. Shaw that no more poor Bats should be tortured:—let naturalists torture themselves about the cause as much as they please.—Little new light is thrown on the subject of the Vampyre Bat; while, perhaps, several of the species are treated too much in the laconic style of a descriptive catalogue. Respecting the term *Vampyre*, we have a curious anecdote:

'A Vampyre is an imaginary monster, supposed to suck the blood of sleeping persons. It also alludes to one of the most absurd superstitions that ever entered into the human mind. About the year 1732 an idea arose among the vulgar in some parts of Poland and Hungary, that certain bodies when interred, became possessed of the power of absorbing blood from those who were so unfortunate as to pass over or stand near their graves; it was, therefore, supposed necessary to disinter such bodies and wound them with a sword, by which means this pernicious power was supposed to be put a stop to, and the blood they had unjustly gained was evacuated. Astonishing as this folly may appear, it is yet more astonishing that a great many treatises were written on the subject, and that some considerable time elapsed before the superstition was completely destroyed.'

We find the order *Bruta* slowly ushered in by the *Bradypus.* After every abatement has been made, on the score of fable, this genus evidently possesses an inherent right to its family-designation. Dissections of the *Didactylus*, *Tridactylus*, and of the *Lemur Loris*, confirm Mr. Carlisle's ingenious idea, that the extreme tardiness of their pace results from a particular distribution of the arterial system of the limbs.—Dr. Shaw very properly glances, though with lenient reprehension, at the impious insinuation of Buffon that animals may have been created for misery.

We regard as a valuable and curious addition to this volume, Cuvier's description of the fossil skeleton of an unknown animal, which he designates *Megatherium Americanum.* Examples of a similar nature, mentioned in the sequel, seem to prove that races of animals have become extinct; and we believe that the remark may be extended to the vegetable world.

The *Myrmecophagæ*, or ant-eaters, a toothless tribe, subsisting on insects, and especially ants, which they draw into their mouths by their long worm-like tongues, next pass in review. Of the species, which are not numerous, the aculeated is the most singular, and is thus described:

'ACULEATED ANT-EATER.

'Myrmecophaga Aculeata. *M. aculeata, cauda brevissima. Vivarium Naturæ, tab.* 109.
Spiny Ant-Eater, with very short tail.
Porcupine Ant-Eater. *Naturalist's Miscellany, pl.* 109.
Aculeated Ant-Eater. *Pennant Quadr.* 2. *p.* 262.

'The Aculeated Ant-Eater is one of those curious animals which have been lately discovered in the vast island, or rather continent, of Australasia or New Holland; and is a striking instance of that beautiful gradation, so frequently observed in the animal kingdom, by which creatures of one tribe or genus approach to those of a very different one. It forms a connecting link between the very distant Linnæan genera of Hystrix (Porcupine) and Myrmecophaga (Ant-Eater), having the external coating and general appearance of the one, with the mouth and peculiar generic characters of the other. This animal, so far as may be judged from the specimens hitherto imported, is about a foot in length. The whole upper parts of the body and tail are thickly coated with strong and very sharp spines, of a considerable length, and perfectly resembling those of a Porcupine, except that they are thicker in proportion to their length; and, that, instead of being encircled or annulated with several alternate rings of black and white, as in that animal, they are mostly of a yellowish white with black tips; the colour running down to some little distance on the quill, and being separated from the white part by a circle of dull orange: others have but a very slight appearance of black towards the tips. The head, legs, and whole under-parts of the body, are of a deep brown, or sable, and are thickly coated with strong, close-set, bristly hair. The tail is extremely short, slightly flattened at the tip, and coated on the upper part of the base with spines, at least equal in length to those of the back, and pointing perpendicularly upwards. The snout is long and tubular, and perfectly resembles in structure that of the M. Jubata, or Great Ant-Eater; having only a very small rictus or opening at the tip, from whence is protruded a long lumbrici-form tongue, as in other Ant-Eaters. The nostrils are small, and seated at the extremity of the snout. The eyes are very small and black, with a pale blue iris. The legs are very short and thick; and are each furnished with five rounded, broad toes: on the fore feet are five very strong, long, and blunt claws, of a black colour: on the hind feet are only four claws; the thumb, which is broader than the rest of the toes, being destitute of a claw: the first claw on the hind feet is extremely long, somewhat curved, and sharp-pointed; the next rather shorter, but of similar appearance; the two remaining ones far shorter, very slightly curved, and not sharp-pointed. In its mode of life this animal resembles the rest of the Ant-Eaters, being generally found in the midst of some large ant-hill: it burrows with great strength and celerity under ground, when disturbed; its feet and legs being most excessively strong, and short, and wonderfully adapted to this purpose. It will even burrow under a pretty strong pavement, removing the stones with its claws; or under the bottom of a wall. During these exertions its body is stretched or lengthened to an uncommon degree, and appears very different from the short or plump aspect which it bears in its undisturbed state.

‘ It cannot escape the observation of every scientific naturalist, that, in consequence of the discovery of this curious animal, the Linnæan character of Myrmecophaga is, in part, rendered inapplicable. Since, therefore, the genera of *Manis* and *Myrmecophaga* differ only in the external covering, the former being coated with scales, and the latter with hair, it would, perhaps, be not improper to conjoin the two genera, to add this as a new species, and to give as part of the generic character, *Corpus pilis, squamis, vel aculeis tectum.* Or it might even constitute a new genus, which would differ from those of Manis and Myrmecophaga, in having the body covered with spines.'

The *Manis* and *Armadillo* offer little to detain attention: but Mr. Bruce's account of the two-horned Rhinoceros, and Mr. Bell's description of that of Sumatra, are well deserving of notice.

We are likewise presented with the substance of Mr. Corse's recent communications concerning the Elephant, extracted from the Philosophical Transactions. Of that animal's intellectual and *moral* endowments, we looked for other anecdotes than the well-known adventure of the taylor of Delli:—but the following very extraordinary particulars, related of the next genus, more than compensated for our disappointment.

' PLATYPUS.

' *Generic Character.*

' *Os* anatinum.	*Mouth* shaped like the bill of a duck.
Pedes palmati.	*Feet* webbed.

' Of this most extraordinary genus, the first description appeared in the Naturalist's Miscellany; but as the individual there described was the only one which had been seen, it was impossible not to entertain some distant doubts as to the genuine nature of the animal, and to surmise, that, though in apperance perfectly natural, there might still have been practised some arts of deception in its structure. I, therefore, hesitated as to admitting it into the present History of Quadrupeds. Two more specimens, however, having been very lately sent over from New Holland, by Governor Hunter, to Sir Joseph Banks, the suspicions before mentioned are now completely dissipated. I shall, therefore, here repeat my first description in the work above mentioned, and have only to observe, that the genus should be placed, as there proposed, next to that of *Myrmecophaga,* in the present order of *Bruta.*

' Platypus Anatinus. *Vivarium Naturæ, tab* 385.
The Duck-billed Platypus. *Naturalist's Miscellany, pl.* 385.

' The animal exhibited on the present plate constitutes a new and singular genus, which, in the Linnæan arrangement of quadrupeds, should be placed in the order *Bruta,* and should stand next to the genus Myrmecophaga.

' Of all the Mammalia yet known it seems the most extraordinary in its conformation; exhibiting the perfect resemblance of the beak of a Duck engrafted on the head of a quadruped. So accurate is the similitude, that, at first view, it naturally excites the idea of some deceptive preparation by artificial means; the very epidermis, proportion, serratures, manner of opening, and other particulars of the beak of a shoveler, or other broad-billed species of duck, presenting themselves to the view: nor is it without the most minute and rigid examination that we can persuade ourselves of its being the real beak or snout of a quadruped.

'The body is depressed, and has some resemblance to that of an Otter in miniature: it is covered with a very thick, soft, and beaver-like fur, and is of a moderately dark brown above, and of a subferruginous white beneath. The head is flattish, and rather small than large: the mouth or snout, as before observed, so exactly resembles that of some broad-billed species of duck that it might be mistaken for such: round the base is a flat, circular membrane, somewhat deeper or wider below than above, viz. below near the fifth of an inch, and above about an eighth. The tail is flat, furry like the body, rather short, and obtuse, with an almost bifid termination: it is broader at the base, and gradually lessens to the tip, and is about three inches in length: its colour is similar to that of the body. The length of the whole animal from the tip of the beak to that of the tail is thirteen inches: of the beak an inch and half. The legs are very short, terminating in a broad web, which on the fore feet extends to a considerable distance beyond the claws; but on the hind feet reaches no farther than the roots of the claws. On the fore feet are five claws, straight, strong, and sharp pointed: the two exterior ones somewhat shorter than the three middle ones. On the hind feet are six claws, longer and more inclining to a curved form than those on the fore feet: the exterior toe and claw are considerably shorter than the four middle ones: the interior or sixth is seated much higher up than the rest, and resembles a strong, sharp spur. All the legs are hairy above: the fore feet are naked both above and below; but the hind feet are hairy above, and naked below. The internal edges of the under mandible (which is narrower than the upper) are serrated or channeled with numerous striæ, as in a duck's bill. The nostrils are small and round, and are situated about a quarter of an inch from the tip of the bill, and are about the eighth of an inch distant from each other. There is no appearance of teeth: the palate is removed, but seems to have resembled that of a duck: the tongue also is wanting in the specimen. The ears, or auditory foramina, are placed about an inch beyond the eyes: they appear like a pair of oval holes of the eighth of an inch in diameter; there being no external ear. On the upper part of the head, on each side, a little beyond the beak, are situated two smallish oval white spots; in the lower part of each of which are imbedded the eyes, or at least the parts allotted to the animal for some kind of vision; for from the thickness of the fur and the smallness of the organs they seem to have been but obscurely calculated for distinct vision, and are probably like those of Moles, and some other animals of that tribe; or perhaps even subcutaneous; the whole apparent diameter of the cavity in which they were placed not exceeding the tenth of an inch.

'When we consider the general form of this animal, and particularly its bill and webbed feet, we shall readily perceive that it must be a resident in watery situations; that it has the habits of digging or burrowing in the banks of rivers, or under ground; and that its food consists of aquatic plants and animals. This is all that can at present be reasonably guessed at: future observations, made in its native regions, will, it is hoped, afford us more ample information, and will make us fully acquainted with the natural history of an animal which differs so widely from all other quadrupeds, and which verifies in a most striking manner the observation of Buffon, viz. that whatever was possible for Nature to produce, has actually been produced.

'On a subject so extraordinary as the present, a degree of scepticism is not only pardonable, but laudable; and I ought perhaps to acknowledge that I almost doubt the testimony of my own eyes with respect to the structure of this animal's beak; yet must confess that I can perceive no appearance of any deceptive preparation; and the edges of the rictus, the insertion, &c. when tried by the test of maceration in water, so as to render every part completely moveable, seem perfectly natural; nor can the most accurate examination of expert anatomists discover any deception in this particular.

'The Platypus is a native of Australasia or New Holland.'

In perusing the history of the *Trichechus* or *Walrus* tribe, we are pleased to find warmth of affection subsisting among those shapeless monsters of the deep, amid the cold and horrors of the polar regions.

Part II. of Vol. I. commences with the *Feræ*. As the history of many of this and of the succeeding orders of *Mammalia* must be familiar to many persons, we shall notice this part of the system but slightly, and leave room for a more particular examination of the amphibious class.

Should the reader find the article *Dog* less extended and interesting than his expectation had anticipated, he will probably deem the author's apology satisfactory:

'Besides the varieties of dogs enumerated, there are many others arising from the mixture of breeds: but it would be tedious as well as useless, to particularize with scrupulous minuteness all the differences of this varying race. The principal varieties are well figured in the Count de Buffon's Natural History, and are copied into Mr. Smellie's translation of that elegant work. In the present publication, solicitous to introduce figures of the rarer animals, rather than of such as are well known, we have admitted only the Shepherd's Dog, the Dingo or Australasian Dog, and the Irish Greyhound, as elucidations of the species.'

Of the *Wolf*, we are told that, when reduced to extremity by hunger, he swallows great quantities of mud, to allay the uneasy sensation of his stomach.—May he not claim kindred with the New Caledonians?

Dr. Shaw, who does not rashly adopt extravagant opinions, inclines to favour Professor Guldenstadt's hypothesis on the origin of the dog:

'The more we consider,' says he, 'the nature and manners of this animal, the more reason we shall find to coincide with Professor Guldenstadt in opinion, that the Jackal is the real origin of the Dog; (unless, indeed, we allow the wild dogs of Africa, mentioned under the history of that species, to be the Dog in a state of nature.) Mr. Guldenstadt very properly observes, that the natale solum of the Wolf does not seem to fit it for being the supposed origin of the Dog, since it is generally confined to the frigid zone: its size is also against the supposition; for the natural size of any species of animal appears to be between that of the large and small varieties. The Fox is still more unlike the Dog, as to some particulars in the structures of the intestines: the native country of the Jackal, which is properly Asia Minor, is the land where we should naturally suppose the primæval domestic Dog to have originated. The Jackal, according to Mr. Guldenstadt, has a natural propensity to follow mankind, instead of flying from him like the Wolf and the Fox. The whelp, he adds, is very readily tamed, and, when grown up, assumes all the habits of the domestic Dog: fawns on his master, rejoices, wags its tail, throws itself on its back, and murmurs gently, distinguishes its name, jumps on the table, &c. &c. &c.'

As no unfavourable specimen of the work, we are still tempted to transcribe the article TIGER:

' TIGER.

' Felis Tigris. *F. cauda elongata, corpore maculis omnibus virgatis. Lin. Syst. Nat. p.* 61.

' C. with elongated tail, and body marked with long transverse streaks.

' Tigris. *Gesn. Quadr.* 936. *Aldr. dig.* 101.

' Felis flava, maculis longis nigris variegata. *Briss. Quadr. p.* 195.

' Tigre. *Buff.* 9. *p.* 129. *pl.* 9.

' Tiger. *Pennant Quadr.* 1. *p.* 277.

' The Tiger, the most beautiful, but most destructive of quadrupeds, is a native of the warmer parts of Asia, and is principally found in India and the Indian islands. The species extends, however, as far as China, and Chinese Tartary, the lake Ural, and the Altaic Mountains. Its colour is a deep tawny, or orange-yellow; the face, throat, and under side of the belly, being nearly white: the whole is traversed by numerous long black stripes, forming a bold and striking contrast with the ground-colour. About the face and breast the stripes are proportionally smaller than on other parts · the tail is annulated with black, and is shorter than the body. There seems to be some variation in the proportion and number of the stripes in different individuals; and the ground-colour is more or less bright, according to various circumstances of age and health in the respective animals. Linnæus calls the Tiger "*pulcherrimus quadrupedum.*" We must not judge of the elegance of this animal's robe from the specimens which are sometimes seen in museums, or even from such living ones as by long confinement, and an alteration of climate, have lost the native brilliancy of their colours. When seen in perfection, and before its health has been impaired by confinement, it is scarce possible to conceive a more elegantly variegated animal than the

Tiger: the bright and intense orange-yellow which constitutes the ground colour; the deep and well-defined stripes of black, in some parts double, in others single, the pure white of the cheeks and lower part of the sides, over which a part of the black striping is continued, form, altogether, an appearance far superior in beauty to the skin of the Zebra, or that of any other regularly-marked quadruped, not excepting even the Panther itself. In its general size the Tiger is inferior only to the Lion, and has been seen even larger, viz. of the length of fifteen feet from the nose to the tip of the tail. The largest are those of India, and are termed Royal Tigers; but this distinction is supposed to relate merely to the size of the animal; there being only one species of Tiger, though there may perhaps be some races larger than others.

'Of so fierce and sanguinary a disposition is the Tiger as to surpass in rapacity every other wild beast, and is, therefore, considered as the most dreadful scourge of the hotter regions of Asia. The Lion is commonly supposed to exhibit a certain degree of generosity of disposition, and to prey in a less malignant and cruel manner. He is also, when taken into a state of confinement, capable of being tamed, and rendered mild and placid to his keepers; but the tiger is not to be divested of his natural ferocity of character, and in confinement he generally exhibits all the symptoms of malignity. His method of seizing his prey is by concealing himself from view, and springing with a horrible roar on his victim, which he carries off, and tears in pieces, after having first sucked out the blood. The voice of the Tiger, in the act of springing on his prey, is said to be hideous beyond conception. Even a Buffalo has been thus seized by a Tiger, and carried off with such seeming ease as to appear scarce [scarcely] an impediment to the animal's flight. It is affirmed, that if the Tiger happens to miss his aim, he does not pursue his prey, but, as if ashamed of his disappointment, runs off.—In the beginning of the present century (says Mr. Pennant), a company, seated under the shade of some trees, near the banks of a river in Bengal, were surprised by the unexpected sight of a Tiger preparing for its fatal spring; when a lady, with almost unexampled presence of mind, furled a large umbrella in the animal's face, which instantly retired, and thus gave an opportunity of escaping from so terrible a neighbour. Another party had not the same good fortune, but in the height of their entertainment lost, in an instant, one of their companions, who was seized and carried off by a Tiger. But the fatal accident which so lately occurred in the East Indies must be still fresh in the memory of all who read the dreadful description given by an eye-witness of the scene. "We went (says the narrator) on shore on Sangar island, to shoot deer, of which we saw innumerable tracks, as well as of Tigers; notwithstanding which, we continued our diversion till near three o'clock, when, sitting down by the side of a jungle to refresh ourselves, a roar like thunder was heard, and an immense Tiger seized on our unfortunate friend *, and rushed again into the jungle, dragging

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'* Mr. Monro, son of Sir Hector Monro, bart. This fatal event took place in the year 1792.'

him through the thickest bushes and trees, every thing giving way to his monstrous strength; a Tigress accompanied his progress. The united agonies of horror, regret, and fear, rushed at once upon us. I fired on the Tiger: he seemed agitated: my companion fired also, and, in a few moments after this, our unfortunate friend came up to us, bathed in blood. Every medical assistance was vain, and he expired in the space of twenty-four hours, having received such deep wounds from the teeth and claws of the animal as rendered his recovery hopeless. A large fire, consisting of ten or twelve whole trees, was blazing by us at the time this accident took place; and ten or more of the natives with us. The human mind can scarce form any idea of this scene of horror. We had hardly pushed our boat from that accursed shore, when the the Tigress made her appearance, almost raging mad, and remained on the sand all the while we continued in sight."

'The Tiger is described by Pliny as an animal of tremendous swiftness: "*animal tremendæ velocitatis.*" This, however, is said to be not so applicable to the pace of the animal in running, as to the velocity of his spring when darting on his prey. There can be little doubt, however, that the Tiger is in reality an animal of great swiftness, and Mr. Pennant adduces the authorities of two faithful travellers, viz. Pere Gerbillon and Mr. Bell, in confirmation of Pliny's account.

'The Tiger has been known to attack even a Lion, and both animals have perished in the conflict. The Tigress, like the Lioness, produces four or five young at a litter: she is at all times furious, but her rage rises to the utmost extremity when robbed of her young. She then braves every danger, and pursues her plunderers, who are often obliged to release one in order to retard her motion: she stops, takes it up, and carries it to the nearest cover, but instantly returns, and renews her pursuit, even to the very gates of buildings, or the edge of the sea, and when her hope of recovering them is lost, she expresses her agony by hideous howlings, which excite terror wherever they reach.'

The remaining species of *Felis* afford little room for remark. We may merely note, in passing, that the *Booted Lynx* of Bruce appears, from the description, to be perfectly distinct from the *Caracal.*

The common and sea Otters, the polar Bear, and the Kanguroo, form very entertaining articles: but our limits do not permit us to dwell on them.

The first part of the Second Volume is wholly occupied with the *Glires*; and the *Hystrix*, or Porcupine, in appearance so like the Hedge-Hog, but from its conformation holding a dif-
the method, is the first of the genera that is dis-
lief of a power inherent in the Porcupine, to
a distance, is shewn to be fabulous: but the
ly traced to a natural fact.

The *Cavies* and a few other genera have been very properly subtracted from the voluminous category *Mus*. The *Cavia Cobaya*, which we call *Guinea-Pig*, neither comes from Guinea, nor is a pig; which shews the futility of trivial names.

The occasional migrations of the *Lemming* and *Economic Rat* are prettily detailed in the present volume:—but, once more, we set bounds to our extracts.—Sonnini supplies an animated and striking history of the *Jerboa*; one of the few, but curious creatures which form the connecting link between birds and quadrupeds.—Two singular facts occur concerning the *Rabbit*; first, it is not indigenous to Great Britain; and, secondly, the characters which distinguish it from the *Hare*, escaped the penetration of Linné himself.

Part II. of the Second Volume includes the three remaining orders of the viviparous class, namely, *Pecora*, *Belluæ*, and *Cetæ*. Under the article *Camel*, instead of Buffon's eloquent harangue on the tyranny of man, we could have desired a few more details relative to the natural history of the animal, from Dr. Shaw's own pen.

In the prosecution of a work avowedly systematic, we look not for episode or digression. Yet, who could portray the *Rein-Deer*, and not recall the tranquil life of the Laplander? or, who can peruse Linné's celebrated apostrophe, and not sigh for repose? A late Scottish judge, more conspicuous for talents than feeling, remarked that the passage would *make a capital figure on an oyster*. Dr. S. has paid it a higher compliment; for he has clothed it in English verse.

We expected that the *Chamois* would have furnished some additional paragraphs.

The *Arnée*, as delineated by Kerr, and the *Yak*, by Captain Turner, are other instances of the happiness with which Dr. Shaw terminates his quotations.

The singular notice of *Equus Bisulcus*, being short, may be here inserted for the gratification of the curious:

> 'The very name of this species seems to imply a kind of equivocal and anomalous being; one of the most prominent characters of the present genus being a simple or undivided hoof. Indeed if only a single specimen of this animal had been described, we might have hesitated as to admitting it otherwise than as an accidental variety.
>
> 'The cloven-footed Horse is a native of South America, and was first described by Molina in his Natural History of Chili. In its general appearance, size, colour, and many other particulars, both external and internal, it resembles the Ass; but has the voice and the ears of a Horse, and has no cross or transverse band over the shoulders. It is very wild, strong, and swift, and is found in the rocky regions of the Andes or Cordilleras of Peru and Chili. The hoofs are divided like those of ruminant animals.

'It is singular that this curious species, which seems, as it were, to form a kind of link between the cloven-hoofed and whole-hoofed tribes, should have so long remained unknown to the naturalists of Europe.'

Much attention has been bestowed in collecting the most authentic facts relative to the *Hippopotamus*; and, from the not less accurate account of the *Tapir*, we are led to infer that these two singular genera have marked affinities.

Marten's narrative of the *Whale*, here stripped of superfluous expressions, and the accurate distinctions between the *Porpesse* and *Dolphin*, are particularly worthy of our attention.

The late celebrated Mr. Hunter's distinguished paper on the cetaceous family of animals, given from the Philosophical Transactions mostly in his own words, but occasionally somewhat abridged, forms a valuable Appendix.

We must reserve our account of Vol. III. for another opportunity, and conclude the present article with a few general observations.—With regard to the typography and engravings of this work, we are happy in informing our readers that they are executed in a manner which is suitable to its solid merits; though some errors of the press, omitted in the errata, might be pointed out: but they are mostly of a very trifling nature.—A few neologisms, harsh combinations, and slight inaccuracies of expression, struck us the more sensibly because smoothness, clearness, and elegance, usually form the character of the author's style. We question, for example, whether *predacious*, *salient* (in the sense of *leaping*), and *educational*, be sanctioned by the usage of the language. An English ear can scarcely relish *ocellated*, *edentulous*, *inappendiculated*, and *subtetradactylous*; and the phrases—*a sort of short*—*in but an indifferent*—*clsisb*—*difficultly*, &c. are peculiarly grating. *Most excessively strong*—*most extremely harmless*—*they often carry the young* ONE *and fondle* THEM—*more commonly found in moist* RATHER *than in dry*—*deprived of sleep for a considerable* SPACE, &c. may suffice as instances of careless composition.

Though it is our intention to consider the third volume with the least possible delay, we cannot take even a temporary leave of the author without returning him our sincerest acknowlegements for the various instruction and entertainment which he has afforded us. If, in the course of our account, we have hinted at trivial omissions, we need hardly remind him that no work of extent and importance was ever free from defect; and while we submit our remarks with deference to his mature consideration, we conceive that, if we have rightly estimated his character from his writings, he would not thank us for vague and indiscriminate approbation.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *The History of France*, Civil and Military, Ecclesiastical, Political, Literary, Commercial, &c. &c. from the Time of its Conquest by Clovis, A. D. 486. By the Rev. Alexander Ranken, one of the Ministers of Glasgow. Volume II.; from the Death of Charlemagne, A. D. 814. to the Accession of of Hugh Capet, A. D. 987. 8vo. pp. 350. 6s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

IN a former article*, we gave an account of the first volume of this history, which pointed out with tolerable accuracy and precision the establishment of the power of Clovis, the conduct of his successors, and the means by which the Merovingian line of kings was superseded by Pepin d'Heristal, his son Charles Martel, Pepin, and Charlemagne. The present volume conducts us from the death of Charlemagne to the establishment of the Capetian dynasty, and discusses the various instances of weakness and imbecility which characterized the children and successors of that great monarch, and led to the overthrow of the Carlovingian race. The vast empire of Charlemagne required his splendid abilities and his unremitting vigilance to preserve it united: but the degeneracy of his family soon annihilated the Imperial power. He had subdued, and added to those dominions of France which he received from Pepin, Aquitaine and Gascony, the northern provinces of Spain to the river Ebro, all Italy (excepting Calabria), and the remainder of Germany to the Danube and the Vistula. His son Lewis succeeded without difficulty, but he possessed not the talents which were requisite for his situation. From his early and uniform habits, he was denominated the *Pious*, and his natural temper justly intitled him to the appellation of the *Mild*. Relaxation of authority, and imbecility of government, first appeared in the discontents and insurrections of his own family; and after a war, which destroyed one hundred thousand Franks, the empire was divided by treaty between his three sons, who had violated every filial duty. The kingdoms of France and Germany were by this measure for ever separated.

Mr. Ranken judiciously observes that,

'In the height of the prosperity both of the Merovingian and Carlovingian kings of France, we trace the causes of their decline and fall. Under their domestic favour, and by their royal munificence, a power arose, which undermined and overthrew them. By gratifying the ambition of the mayors of the palace, Clotaire II. gave them a rank and stability, which secured to him, indeed, a great extent of empire in the mean time, but which encouraged them to depress, and enabled them to trample on, his posterity. The Carlovingians were too anxious to justify their usurpation.

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* Vol. XXXVII. p. 389.

Pepin's extreme desire to obtain the sanction of the pope, and to hold his sovereignty apparently from God: Charlemagne's ambition of the imperial title; and the general deference of Lewis and his sons to both the clergy and the nobles, individually and in their assemblies, exalted the church and the aristocracy above the crown, palsied the state, and ruined the second race.'

In the first chapter of the work, which treats of the civil and military transactions of the period during which the Carlovingian race continued to reign in France, we perceive little that is of an interesting nature: unless, indeed, we except the account of the establishment of the Normans, and the siege of Paris under their leader Sigefrid.—Mr. Gibbon observed that "The dregs of the Carlovingian race no longer exhibited any symptoms of virtue or power, and the ridiculous epithets of the *Bald*, the *Stammerer*, the *Fat*, and the *Simple*, distinguished the tame and uniform features of a crowd of kings alike deserving of oblivion." In the annals of such princes, little is to be expected, that is calculated either to instruct or to entertain the reader.—Lewis the Fifth, the son of Lothaire, was the last king of the Carlovingian race; he reigned fourteen months, and died without children. His uncle Charles attempted in vain to succeed him; and the family of Charlemagne was now rejected after a continuation of power for the period of 237 years:—a new dynasty ascending the throne of France in the year 987.

In Chapter II. the state of religion and the nature of the ecclesiastical government are distinctly and ably considered: indeed, in this portion of the work, we discover greater marks of ability and more instances of valuable information than in the other parts of the volume. The clergy of this period were shamefully illiterate; the few who could write or read neglected the Scriptures, and generally applied to the canons of ecclesiastical councils, and to the writings of the fathers: while their moral conduct was equally disgraceful to themselves and pernicious to society.—The general state of the country, during the whole of this period, was unfavourable to the cause of religion, for it was involved in domestic contentions and distracted by foreign invasions; and religion, as well as wisdom,

"———Is a pearl with most success
Sought in still waters, and beneath clear skies."

The clergy were more intent on an increase of power, than on the proper discharge of their duties. Their frequent at- [illegible] nce at the courts of princes; their presence and co-opera- [illegible] enes of war, on account of the tenure by which they held their benefices being that of military service; and the very endowments and privileges of the order; all contributed to the decay of religion and virtue.

'The extreme weakness (says the historian) of the civil government, and the arbitrary power of the church, cannot be better illustrated than by a short statement of the disorderly and lawless conduct of Hincmar bishop of Laon. He was the nephew and disciple of Hincmar archbishop of Rheims, who spared no labour or influence in carrying on his education, and promoting his interest. He introduced him to court, where he was employed, being a man of talents and address, in several affairs of importance, both foreign and domestic: he procured for him the bishopric of Laon, being within the bounds of his own church, in the province of Rheims.

'So much attention and paternal kindness produced for some time a becoming gratitude and reciprocal affection. He respected his uncle, and zealously promoted his measures; but the natural temper of neither uncle nor nephew appears very mild and accommodating; the former was imperious, and the latter was not submissive and humble. Having obtained court favour, the bishop of Laon accepted an office in the palace, and an abbey in another province, contrary to the canon law, and without consulting his uncle and metropolitan the archbishop of Rheims He refused to attend the synods to which he was summoned, for he was afraid to meet his uncle, or to submit to any interrogations or discipline. His disregard and fear rose to prejudice and resentment. He favoured and admitted to communion those whom his metropolitan and his friends had excommunicated; and others whom they favoured, he excommunicated. He proceeded to asperse his uncle's character, to treat him with personal disrespect, to revile, and even to threaten him. He next directed his turbulent spirit against the civil government.

'Charles the Bald had conferred the ecclesiastical lordship of Pouilly, in the diocese of Laon, on a baron named Nortmannus. Hincmar the bishop recalled this grant, as affecting his benefice. Nortmannus, refusing to relinquish it, was excommunicated by him, and forcibly driven out of his possession. He was farther accused by the bishop to the pope, as a sacrilegious robber of the church. The pope, always eager to interfere in the affairs of France, issued a mandate to the uncle the archbishop of Rheims, requiring him to excommunicate this lay-offender. The archbishop, conscious that this requisition was unjust, refused to execute it. Charles the king approved and supported the elder Hincmar, against his nephew and the pope. The bishop of Laon reclaimed, and brought the subject again to Rome, charging both the king and the archbishop with contempt of the authority of the holy see. In his rage, he excommunicated the clergy of his own diocese, for some disaffection shewn him. The sentence of excommunication was contravened by their metropolitan, by whose authority they were restored to their privileges.

'With a view to subdue this spirit and compose these differences, the king assembled the council of Pistæ, a place now unknown, which the bishop of Laon, though summoned, would not attend. His bishopric and revenues were seized by royal authority: but his uncle now interposed as metropolitan; and having insisted that it was illegal for the king to seize, or at all to touch, ecclesiastical persons or property, the matter was submitted by both parties to be decided by an ecclesiastical assembly. The synod of Verbery was convoked in May 869 for this purpose. The younger Hincmar attended; and, finding the current of opinions running against him, appealed to Rome. Being prevented by the king from leaving his diocese to prosecute his appeal, he took revenge, by excommunicating the whole people of Laon, interdicting the exercise of every religious function: infants remained unbaptized, the churches were shut, the dead were unburied. The archbishop of Rheims countermanded this interdict, and enjoined the clergy to discharge their duty: the bishop, his nephew, commanded their obedience to their immediate superior; and it is no wonder that the country was distracted.

'Pope Adrian, who appears to have been not only, like all his predecessors, desirous of ruling the church of France, but of humbling particularly the archbishop of Rheims, was always ready to listen to any one who appealed to him against that metropolitan, either for counsel or aid, and though he could not be ignorant of the character of the younger Hincmar, yet he encouraged and supported him in his rebellion against both church and state. He wrote to the king, requiring him to allow the bishop of Laon to attend his duty at Rome; and he ordained the metropolitan to take charge of his diocese in his absence, and see that it suffered no dilapidation nor injury from either prince or people. An assembly was held at Douzi A. D. 871, which the king and both Hincmars attended. The bishop of Laon was charged with ecclesiastical disobedience and with civil rebellion. The trial was tedious, but he was finally and unanimously condemned and deposed. Restless and vengeful, he was still moving sedition, when the king judged it necessary to banish him, to cast him into prison, to load him with fetters, and inhumanly to put out his eyes. On the death of Charles the Bald, pope John VIII. came into France, and, two years after this disgrace and punishment, restored this degraded bishop, in the assembly of Troyes, not to his see, which was thought improper, but to the communion of the church, and to the exercise of some ecclesiastical functions; and with the consent of the king, Lewis the Stammerer, he was allowed an annuity out of the revenues of the church of Laon. He died A. D. 882. These facts shew the distracted state of the church, the power of a single bishop to vex and disturb both church and state, the officious spirit of the pope, the deficiency of civil and ecclesiastical law, and the general weakness of government.'

In the account of the civil government of France, we are informed that the rigorous state of servitude, which prevailed in the period preceding the death of Charlemagne, experienced considerable mitigations during the reign of his successors. To this improvement the mild spirit of Christianity, (imperfect as its influence was,) and the firm conviction that the end of the world was near at hand, in a great measure contributed. We read with sincere pleasure, mixed with some portion of surprise, the following sentence from one of the capitularies of Lewis and Lothaire: "It behoves every one to treat his inferiors with gentleness and compassion in exacting labour, in levying debts, and in imposing fines; all ought to consider one another as brethren: all have one God and Father, to whom they can with equal confidence address themselves, saying, '*Our Father, who art in heaven:*' all have access to one baptism," &c. &c. These sentiments breathe the true spirit of the Gospel; and they bring to our recollection a most impressive passage in Archdeacon Paley's Moral Philosophy, in which our duties are pointed out, and our obligation to perform them is stated as resulting from our being the children of the same Parent, sustained by the same bounty, involved in the same guilt, redeemed by the same Saviour, and hastening to the same end. The following regulation, on account of its humanity and benevolence, deserves to be imitated:

> "Judges were required to give a preference to the poor, when they appeared in court, in so far as to hear their cause early, or before noon, prior to regal and ecclesiastical causes. The reason is assigned, that they could not afford to wait on the court until they were called, and obtained justice in the ordinary course. No one, more rich or powerful than they, was allowed either to purchase, or take, any thing from them, but at a public sale, or before suitable witnesses, to prevent even the suspicion of extortion and oppression."

Such rules, so wise and so kind in their operation, we should not expect to find in times of anarchy and violence.—Though we observe something unreasonable and absurd in their laws of evidence, yet several of their regulations are deserving of notice. No witness was admissible, if under the age of fourteen, if in any way concerned in the cause, if a near relation, or if any charge of immorality could be substantiated against him by the opposite party. A perjured witness was punished with the loss of his hand, and was for ever disqualified from again bearing testimony. Witnesses were not allowed to give evidence out of court, nor by letter, nor from hearsay; and writings duly dated, and attested by the subscription or signature of their author, were admitted as proofs.—In that division of the history, which treats of the government and laws of this period, we meet with many curious and interesting particulars.

Though we have derived much pleasure and information from this as well as the former volume of Mr. Ranken's history, and think that in each he has shewn many proofs of patient investigation and laborious research; yet we are compelled to remark that the style, in which he has communicated his ideas, (particularly in the volume before us,) is highly objectionable. This defect is the more inexcusable, because the author has manifested his ability, in several portions of his work, to write with perspicuity if not with elegance; and the fault for which we now arraign him is imputable to inattention, rather than to ignorance of the rules of composition.

ART. IV. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,* for the Year 1802. Part I. 4to. 11s. sewed. Nicol.

CHEMICAL *and* MINERALOGICAL PAPERS.

AN Analysis of a Mineral Substance from North America, containing a Metal hitherto unknown. By Charles Hatchett, Esq. F. R. S.—We shall give the history and description of this substance in the author's words:

'In the course of the last summer, when I was examining and arranging some minerals in the British Museum, I observed a small specimen of a dark coloured heavy substance, which attracted my attention, on account of some resemblance which it had with the Siberian chromate of iron, on which at that time I was making experiments.

'Upon referring to Sir HANS SLOANE's catalogue, I found that this specimen was only described as "a very heavy black stone, with golden streaks," which proved to be yellow mica; and it appeared, that it had been sent, with various specimens of iron ores, to Sir HANS SLOANE, by Mr. WINTHROP, of Massachusets. The name of the mine, or place where it was found, is also noted in the catalogue; the writing however is scarcely legible: it appears to be an Indian name, (Nautneauge); but I am informed by several American gentlemen, that many of the Indian names (by which certain small districts, hills, &c. were forty or fifty years ago distinguished,) are now totally forgotten, and European names have been adopted in the room of them. This may have been the case in the present instance; but, as the other specimens sent by Mr. WINTHROP were from the mines of Massachusets, there is every reason to believe that the mineral substance in question came from one of them, although it may not now be easy to identify the particular mine.

'§ I. DESCRIPTION OF THE ORE.

'The external colour is dark brownish gray.

The internal colour is the same, inclining to iron gray.

The longitudinal fracture is imperfectly lamellated; and the cross fracture shews a fine grain.

The lustre is vitreous, slightly inclining in some parts to metallic lustre.

It is moderately hard, and is very brittle.

The colour of the streak or powder is dark chocolate brown.

The particles are not attracted by the magnet.

The specific gravity, at temp. 65°, is 5918.'

From the chemical experiments which are afterward related, the following appear to be the properties of this ore:

1. The nitric, muriatic, and sulphuric acids act but very feebly on it.

2. It may be decomposed by being alternately melted with carbonate of potash, and digested with muriatic acid.

3. By the above operations, the potash becomes combined with a metallic acid, and the ferruginous part is taken up by the muriatic acid.

4. The metallic acid may be separated from the alkali in the form of a white flocculent precipitate, by the addition of nitric acid.

5. Nearly three-fourths of the ore consist of the metallic acid, the remaining part being iron.

6. Nitric acid, whether cold or hot, does not act on the white precipitate, nor even produce the smallest change of colour.

7. When recently separated from potash, it is soluble in boiling sulphuric acid.

8. In like manner, it is soluble in muriatic acid.

9. Water precipitates this substance from sulphuric but not from muriatic acid.

10. When the acid solutions are saturated by any of the alkalis, they afford white precipitates.

11. Prussiate of potash produces an olive-coloured precipitate, and tincture of galls forms one of a deep orange colour.

12. Zinc immersed in the acid solutions forms a white precipitate.

13. The substance in question reddens litmus paper, but is nearly insoluble in water.

14. It expels carbonic acid from the fixed alkalis, combines with them both in the dry and humid way, and forms neutral salts.

15. It will not unite with ammonia.

16. It will not combine with sulphur when heated in contact with it.

17. Hydro-sulphuret of ammonia forms a chocolate-coloured precipitate, when added to the alkaline solutions.

18. With phosphate of ammonia, it affords a purplish blue glass.

19. It is of very difficult reduction.

'These properties (Mr. Hatchett observes) completely distinguish it from the other acidifiable metals; viz. arsenic, tungsten, molybdena, and chromium; and as to the other metals lately discovered, such as uranium, titanium, and tellurium, they are still farther removed from it.'

The author concludes his paper as follows:

'I am much inclined to believe, that the time i distant, when some of the newly-discovered m stances, which are now considered as simple bodies, will be found to be compounds. state this opinion as a probability; for chemical knowledge shall enable us compose, these bodies, each must ' stance *sui generis*. Considerin been examined is so very diff peared proper that it should b having consulted with several of t this country, I have been induced to g

Observations and Experiments upon oxygenized Muriatic Acid; and upon som Muriatic Acid in its three States. By Richar F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.—Mr. Chenevix remarks ence of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, in fact, rests on the conjecture of M. Berthollet:—but some notice h taken of the saline combinations formed by passing a c of oxygenized muriatic acid through solutions of the alk earths, by Messrs. D'Olfus, Gadolin, Van-Mons, Lavoisie others. Mr. Hoyle, of Manchester, however, has appro the nearest (with the exception of M. Berthollet,) to th state of the combination of muriatic acid and oxygen potash.—We regret that the nature of our Review preclu from entering so fully into the contents of this elaborate as we could wish: but we must content ourselves with the principal results;—the first of which are, that 100 p hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid are composed of

Oxygen - - -	65
Muriatic acid - -	35
	100

and that the elements of hyper-oxygenized muriate of pota

Oxygen	38,3	hyperoxygenized	58,3
Muriatic acid	20	Muriatic acid -	
		Potash -	39,2
		Water -	2,5
			100,0

---

* Mr. Chenevix observes; 'I have preferred this word to because *ate* is the appropriate termination of certain salts formed acids in *ic*. Some farther remarks upon this subject will be m work now in the press, entitled *Remarks upon Chemical Nomen*

...ed muriatic acid, and the liquor becomes of an

...thy hyper-oxygenized muriates with phos-
...uor sometimes contained oxide of silver
examination, was found to be com-
...d muriatic acid.—The salt is soluble
water, and, by cooling, crystallizes
...ids, opaque and dull like nitrate
...is salt is mixed with about half
...s in the most violent manner,
...he explosion of half a grain
...in of sulphur, appears at
...by five grains of hyper-
...due quantities of sul-

an...

'Upon ...
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the formation of hyp...
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acid for ammonia, and (by ve...
is much greater than that of oxyg...

...ng observations:
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The alkaline and earthy hyper-oxy...
examined; and the author states the co...
oxygenized muriate of potash to be,

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	-	
Potash	-	
Water	-	
		100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Soda consists of

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	-	66,2
Soda	-	29,6
Water	-	4,2
		100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Barytes.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	-	47
Barytes	-	42,2
Water	-	10,8
		100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Strontia.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	-	46
Strontia	-	26
Water	-	28
		100

Hyper-oxy-

The author concludes his paper as follows:

'I am much inclined to believe, that the time is perhaps not very distant, when some of the newly-discovered metals, and other substances, which are now considered as simple, primitive, and distinct bodies, will be found to be compounds. Yet I only entertain and state this opinion as a probability; for, until an advanced state of chemical knowledge shall enable us to compose, or at least to decompose, these bodies, each must be classed and denominated as a substance *sui generis*. Considering, therefore, that the metal which has been examined is so very different from those hitherto discovered, it appeared proper that it should be distinguished by a peculiar name; and, having consulted with several of the eminent and ingenious chemists of this country, I have been induced to give it the name of Columbium.'

Observations and Experiments upon oxygenized and hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid; and upon some Combinations of the Muriatic Acid in its three States.* By Richard Chenevix, Esq. F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.—Mr. Chenevix remarks that the existence of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, in fact, rests at present on the conjecture of M. Berthollet:—but some notice has been taken of the saline combinations formed by passing a current of oxygenized muriatic acid through solutions of the alkalis or earths, by Messrs. D'Olfus, Gadolin, Van-Mons, Lavoisier, and others. Mr. Hoyle, of Manchester, however, has approached the nearest (with the exception of M. Berthollet,) to the real state of the combination of muriatic acid and oxygen with potash.—We regret that the nature of our Review precludes us from entering so fully into the contents of this elaborate paper as we could wish: but we must content ourselves with stating the principal results;—the first of which are, that 100 parts of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid are composed of

Oxygen	65
Muriatic acid	35
	100

and that the elements of hyper-oxygenised muriate of potash are,

Oxygen	38,3	hyperoxygenized	58,3
Muriatic acid	20	Muriatic acid	
		Potash	39,2
		Water	2,5
			100,0

---

* Mr. Chenevix observes; 'I have preferred this word to oxygenated, because *ate* is the appropriate termination of certain salts formed by the acids in *ic*. Some farther remarks upon this subject will be made in a work now in the press, entitled *Remarks upon Chemical Nomenclature.*'

In page 132, the proportions of oxygenized muriatic acid are stated to be,

Muriatic acid	84
Oxygen	16
	100

Mr. C. next proceeds to consider the oxygenized muriates; and in page 137, he remarks that,

'Upon the whole, it appears fair to conclude,

'1st. That the salts of this genus do really exist, previous to the formation of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash.

'2dly. That the affinity exercised by hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid for ammonia, and (by very strong analogy) for the other bases, is much greater than that of oxygenized muriatic acid.'

The alkaline and earthy hyper-oxygenized muriates are next examined; and the author states the component parts of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash to be,

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	58,3
Potash	39,2
Water	2,5
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Soda consists of

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	66,2
Soda	29,6
Water	4,2
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Barytes.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	47
Barytes	42,2
Water	10,8
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Strontia.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	46
Strontia	26
Water	28
	100

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Lime.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid. -	55,2
Lime -	28,3
Water -	16,5
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Ammonia.

If carbonate of ammonia be poured into any earthy salt of this genus, a double decomposition takes place, and hyper-oxygenized muriate of ammonia is formed.—All attempts, however, which were made to ascertain the proportions of its principles, proved fruitless.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Magnesia.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid -	60
Magnesia -	25,7
Water -	14,3
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Alumina.

The proportions of the principles of this salt could not be determined.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Silica,

Mr. C. is inclined to think that this salt does not exist.

The author next proceeds to consider the metallic combinations of muriatic acid in its different states; and, in consequence of some experiments which he relates, he establishes the following comparative table of the composition of calomel and corrosive sublimate:

Calomel,		Corrosive Sublimate.	
The oxide of mercury in calomel is composed of,		The oxide of mercury in corrosive sublimate is composed of,	
Mercury -	89,3	Mercury -	85
Oxygen -	10,7	Oxygen -	15
	100,0		100
Calomel is composed of		Corrosive sub. is composed of	
Mercury 79 Oxygen 9,5 } oxide of Mercury	88,5	Mercury 69,7 Oxygen 12,3 } oxide of Mercury	82
Muriatic acid -	11,5	Muriatic acid -	18

The real hyper-oxygenized muriate of mercury is very different from corrosive sublimate. About four parts of water are sufficient to retain it in solution; and when sulphuric or even weaker acids are poured on it, it gives out the smell of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, and the liquor becomes of an orange colour.

In treating the earthy hyper-oxygenized muriates with phosphate of silver, the liquor sometimes contained oxide of silver in solution, which, on examination, was found to be combined with hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid.—The salt is soluble in about two parts of warm water, and, by cooling, crystallizes in the shape of small rhomboïds, opaque and dull like nitrate of lead or barytes.—When this salt is mixed with about half its weight of sulphur, it detonates in the most violent manner, even on the slightest pressure.—The explosion of half a grain of the salt, with a quarter of a grain of sulphur, appears at least to equal that which is produced by five grains of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash, with the due quantities of sulphur and charcoal.

The paper is concluded with the following observations:

'Muriatic acid is for us a simple body; but it has acid properties of the strongest kind; therefore, from analogy, we suppose it to contain oxygen. But may not this be too hasty a conclusion? Are we not very doubtful concerning the existence of oxygen in Prussic acid? And are we not, on the contrary, certain that sulphurated hydrogen, which possesses many of the characteristics of acids, does not contain any? Of the oxygenizement of fluoric and boracic acids, we have no proof: but then we cannot affirm that any one of these acids exists in three states of combination with oxygen; and the muriatic is the only radical of which we admit this fact. We must not, however, pretend to limit the number or degrees of combinations between combustible bodies and oxygen; but we can speak, with certainty, only of those things which are proved. Besides its acid properties, this substance has others, common to oxygenizable bodies. With 16 of oxygen, it forms an acid, which, in many of its properties, is to its radical what the sulphureous is to sulphur. Like the sulphureous, it is volatile; has little attraction for salifiable bases; destroys vegetable blues; and is capable of further oxygenizement. With 65 of oxygen, it becomes more fixed, like sulphuric acid; has a stronger affinity for salifiable bases; and acquires more truly acid properties. Upon these considerations, I submit to the chemical world, whether, in the present state of our knowledge, it be not more philosophical to say,

Muriatic radical, or some single word of the same import,	instead of	Muriatic acid;
Muriatous acid,		Oxygenized muriatic acid;
Muriatic acid,		Hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid?

'I am fully aware that, at first sight, this may appear extraordinary; and the more so, as we have no positive facts that prove muriatic acid to be a simple body. All we can, therefore, consider fairly, is, in favour of which appellation does the sum of analogies seem to preponderate? And, to give the cause a candid investigation, we should begin by considering, whether the presence of oxygen in all bodies that have acid properties, has been rigidly demonstrated; and not determine by this law of the French chemistry, till we are well convinced it has not been too generally assumed.

'If a nomenclature be not subservient to the uses of science, and does not keep pace with its progress, the relation between substances and their names will become so relaxed, that confusion will be brought about, by the very means we take to avoid it; and if, while we continue to extend our acquaintance with chemical bodies, nomenclature remains confined within its former limits, the bonds that unite these two parts of the science must inevitably be broken.'

Experiments and Observations on certain Stony and Metalline Substances, which at different times are said to have fallen on the Earth; also on various Kinds of Native Iron. By Edward Howard, Esq. F.R.S.—Mr. Howard commences this paper by observing that

'The concordance of a variety of facts seems to render it most indisputable, that certain stony and metalline substances have, at different periods, fallen on the earth. Whence their origin, or whence they came, is yet, in my judgment, involved in complete obscurity.

'The accounts of these peculiar substances, in the early annals, even of the Royal Society, have unfortunately been blended with relations which we now consider as fabulous; and the more ancient histories of stones fallen from heaven, from Jupiter, or from the clouds, have evidently confounded such substances with what have been termed *Ceraunia*, *Bætilia*, *Ombria*, *Brontia*, &c. names altogether unappropriate to substances fallen on our globe. Indeed some mislead, and others are inexpresssive.

'The term Ceraunia, by a misnomer, deduced from its supposed origin, seems, as well as Bœtilia,* to have been anciently used to denote many species of stones, which were polished and shaped into various forms, though mostly wedge-like or triangular, sometimes as instruments, sometimes as oracles, and sometimes as deities. The import of the names, Ombria, Brontia, &c. seems subject to the same uncertainty.

'In very early ages, it was believed that stones did in reality fall, as it was said, from heaven, or from the gods; these, either from ignorance, or perhaps from superstitious views, were confounded with other stones, which, by their compact aggregation, were better calculated to be shaped into different instruments, and to which it was convenient to attach a species of mysterious veneration. In modern days, because explosion and report have generally accompanied the descent of such substances, the name of thunderbolt, or thunderstone, has ignorantly attached itself to them; and, because a variety of substances accidentally present, near buildings and trees struck with lightening, have, with the same ignorance, been collected as thunderbolts, the thunderbolt and the fallen metalline substance have been ranked in the same class of absurdity. Certainly, since

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'* Mercati, Metallotheca Vaticana, page 241.'

the phenomena of lightning and electricity have been so well identified, the idea of a thunderbolt is ridiculous. But the existence of peculiar substances fallen on the earth, I cannot hesitate to assert; and, on the concordance of remote and authenticated facts, I shall rest the assertion.'

The author then takes notice of the various accounts which have been given, in antient and modern times, of stones which have fallen or have been said to have fallen from the sky. The first of these peculiar substances, with which chemistry has interfered, was the stone presented by the Abbé Bachelay to the Royal French Academy.—The academicians analyzed this stone, and found it to contain

Sulphur - -	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Iron - -	36
Vitrifiable earth -	$55\frac{1}{2}$
	100,0

They were hence induced to conclude that it did not owe its origin to thunder; that it had not fallen from the sky; that it had not been formed by mineral substances fused by lightning; and that it was only a species of pyrites, without peculiarity, except as to the hepatic smell disengaged from it by muriatic acid.

The next and last analytical account of what is called a thunder-stone (*Pierre de Tonnerre*) is that of Monsr. Barthold; who, having described the stone of Ensisheim, states the component parts to be,

Sulphur -	2
Iron -	20
Magnesia -	14
Alumina -	17
Lime -	2
Silica -	42
	97—from 100 pts.

The Earl of Bristol, in a Letter to Sir William Hamilton, dated from Sienna, July 12, 1794, acquainted him that,

> " In the midst of a most violent thunder-storm, about a dozen stones, of various weights and dimensions, fell at the feet of different persons, men, women, and children. The stones are of a quality not found in any part of the Siennese territory; they fell about eighteen hours after the enormous eruption of Mount Vesuvius; which circumstance leaves a choice of difficulties in the solution of this extraordinary phenomenon. Either these stones have been generated in this igneous mass of clouds, which produced such unusual thunder; or, which is equally incredible, they were thrown from Vesuvius, at a distance of at least 250 miles; judge then of its pa-

rabola. The philosophers here incline to the first solution. I wish much, Sir, to know your sentiments. My first objection was to the fact itself; but of this there are so many eye-witnesses, it seems impossible to withstand their evidence." (Phil. Trans. for 1795, p. 103.)

‘ Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON, it seems, also received a piece of one of the largest stones, which weighed upwards of five pounds; and had seen another, which weighed about one. He likewise observed, that the outside of every stone which had been found, and had been ascertained to have fallen from the clouds near Sienna, was evidently freshly vitrified, and was black, having every sign of having passed through an extreme heat; the inside was of a light gray colour, mixed with black spots and some shining particles, which the learned there had decided to be pyrites.

‘ In 1796, a stone weighing 56 lbs. was exhibited in London, with several attestations of persons who, on the 13th of December, 1795, saw it fall, near Wold Cottage, in Yorkshire, at about three o'clock in the afternoon. It had penetrated through 12 inches of soil and 6 inches of solid chalk rock; and, in burying itself, had thrown up an immense quantity of earth, to a great distance: as it fell, a number of explosions were heard, about as loud as pistols. In the adjacent villages, the sounds heard were taken for guns at sea; but, at two adjoining villages, were so distinct of something singular passing through the air, towards the habitation of Mr. TOPHAM, that five or six people came up, to see if any thing extraordinary had happened to his house or grounds. When the stone was extracted, it was warm, smoked, and smelt very strongly of sulphur. Its course, as far as could be collected from different accounts, was from the south-west. The day was mild and hazy, a sort of weather very frequent in the Wold hills, when there are no winds or storms; but there was not any thunder or lightning the whole day. No such stone is known in the country. There was no eruption in the earth; and, from its form, it could not come from any building; and, as the day was not tempestuous, it did not seem probable that it could have been forced from any rocks, the nearest of which are those of Hamborough Head, at a distance of twelve miles *. The nearest volcano, I believe to be Hecla, in Iceland.'

The following account of stones fallen in the East Indies, which was sent to Sir Joseph Banks by John Lloyd Williams, Esq. is so very remarkable, that we shall present it to our readers in the words of the author:

‘ A circumstance of so extraordinary a nature as the fall of stones from the heavens, could not fail to excite the wonder, and attract the attention, of every inquisitive mind.

‘ Among a superstitious people, any preternatural appearance is viewed with silent awe and reverence; attributing the causes to the will of the Supreme Being, they do not presume to judge the means by which they were produced, nor the purposes for which they were ordered; and we are naturally led to suspect the influence of pre-

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‘ * Extracted from the printed paper delivered at the place of exhibition.'

judice and superstition, in their descriptions of such phenomena; my inquiries were therefore chiefly directed to the Europeans, who were but thinly dispersed about that part of the country.

'The information I obtained was, that on the 19th of December, 1798, about eight o'clock in the evening, a very luminous meteor was observed in the heavens, by the inhabitants of Benares and the parts adjacent, in the form of a large ball of fire; that it was accompanied by a loud noise, resembling thunder; and that a number of stones were said to have fallen from it, near Krakhut, a village on the north side of the river Goomty, about 14 miles from the city of Benares.

'The meteor appeared in the western part of the hemisphere, and was but a short time visible: it was observed by several Europeans, as well as natives, in different parts of the country.

'In the neighbourhood of Juanpoor, about 12 miles from the spot where the stones are said to have fallen, it was very distinctly observed by several European gentleman and ladies; who described it as a large ball of fire, accompanied with a loud rumbling noise, not unlike an ill discharged platoon of musquetry. It was also seen, and the noise heard, by various persons at Benares. Mr. DAVIS observed the light come into the room where he was, through a glass window, so strongly as to project shadows, from the bars between the panes, on a dark coloured carpet, very distinctly; and it appeared to him as luminous as the brightest moonlight.

'When an account of the fall of the stones reached Benares, Mr. DAVIS, the judge and magistrate of the district, sent an intelligent person to make inquiry on the spot. When the person arrived at the village near which the stones were said to have fallen, the natives, in answer to his inquiries, told him, that they had either broken to pieces, or given away to the Tesseldar (native collector) and others, all that they had picked up; but that he might easily find some in the adjacent fields, where they would be readily discovered, (the crops being then not above two or three inches above the ground,) by observing where the earth appeared recently turned up. Following these directions, he found four, which he brought to Mr. DAVIS: most of these, the force of the fall had buried, according to a measure he produced, about six inches deep, in fields which seemed to have been recently watered; and it appeared, from the man's description, that they must have lain at the distance of about a hundred yards from each other.

'What he further learnt from the inhabitants of the village, concerning the phenomenon, was, that about eight o'clock in the evening, when retired to their habitations, they observed a very bright light, proceeding as from the sky, accompanied with a loud clap of thunder, which was immediately followed by the noise of heavy bodies falling in the vicinity. Uncertain whether some of their deities might not have been concerned in this occurrence, they did not venture out to inquire into it until the next morning; when the first circumstance which attracted their attention was, the appearance of the earth being turned up in different parts of their fields, as before mentioned, where, on examining, they found the stones.

'The assistant to the collector of the district, Mr. Erskine, a very intelligent young gentleman, on seeing one of the stones, brought to him by the native superintendant of the collections, was also induced to send a person to that part of the country, to make inquiry; who returned with several of the stones, and brought an account similar to that given by the person sent by Mr. Davis, together with a confirmation of it from the Cauzy, (who had been directed to make the inquiry,) under his hand and seal.

'Mr. Maclane, a gentleman who resided very near the village of Krakhut, gave me part of a stone that had been brought to him, the morning after the appearance of the phenomenon, by the watchman who was on duty at his house; this, he said, had fallen through the top of his hut, which was close by, and buried itself several inches in the floor, which was of consolidated earth. The stone must, by his account, previous to its having been broken, have weighed upwards of two pounds.

'At the time the meteor appeared, the sky was perfectly serene; not the smallest vestige of a cloud had been seen since the 11th of the month, nor were any observed for many days after.'

Mr. Howard closes the historical part of his paper, by mentioning a specimen of iron now in the possession of the Right Hon. Charles Greville, but formerly belonging to Baron Born, and thus described in the catalogue intitled *Lithophylacium Bornianum*, Part I. p. 125.

"*Ferrum retractorium, granulis nitentibus, matrice virescenti immixtis, (Ferrum virens Linn.) cujus fragmenta, ab unius ad viginti usque librarum pondus, cortice nigro scoriaceo circumdata, ad Plann, prope Tabor, circuli Bechinensis Bohemiæ, passim reperiuntur.*"

It is added, in a note, "*quæ (fragmenta) 3 Julii, anni* 1753, *inter tonitrua, e cœlo pluisse creduliores quidam asserunt.*"

'The President (continues Mr. Howard) having done me the honour to submit his specimens of the Yorkshire and Italian stones to my examination, I became indebted to Mr. Greville and Mr. Williams for a similar distinction: and, being thus possessed of four substances, to all of which the same origin had been attributed, the necessity of describing them mineralogically did not fail to present itself. To execute this task, no one could be more eager, and certainly no one better qualified, than the Count de Bournon. He has very obligingly favoured me with the following descriptions.'

We cannot enter into the whole of this description; and we shall therefore only state that there is a very singular coincidence not merely in the general history of the stones, but also in their general external characters; since, whatever may be their size, they are covered over the whole extent of their surface with a thin crust of a deep black colour: they have not the slightest gloss; and their surface is sprinkled over with small asperities. When broken, they are of a grayish ash colour, and evidently appear to be composed of four different substances, viz.

1. Small globular or elliptical bodies, from the size of a small pin's head, to that of a pea, and sometimes even larger.

2. Martial pyrites, of an indeterminate form, and of a reddish yellow colour.

3. Small particles of iron, in a perfectly metallic and malleable state.

4. A grayish white earthy substance, which serves as a kind of cement to unite the others.

The specific gravity of these stones is as follows:

Stone from	Benares - -	3352
	Yorkshire -	3508
	Italy - -	3418
	Bohemia -	4281

The analysis made by the French academicians, of the stone presented to them by the Abbé Bachelay, as well as the analysis of M. Barthöld, must be liable to many objections, since each was made of an aggregate portion of the stone. Mr. Howard, therefore, very judiciously endeavoured, as far as was possible, to ascertain the composition of the separate parts of the stones which have just been enumerated.—We must be contented with stating the results.

Stone from Benares.

1. 16 grains of the pyrites yielded,

Sulphur - -	2
Iron - - -	10½
Nickel nearly - -	1
Extraneous earthy matter -	2
	15½

2. 25 grains of the metallic iron yielded,

Earthy matter - -	2
Iron - - -	16½
Nickel -	6½
	25

3. 100 grains of the globular bodies yielded,

Silica - -	50
Magnesia -	15
Oxide of iron - -	34
Oxide of nickel -	2½
	101½

Mr. Howard observes that the excess of weight in this case is probably owing to the difference of the oxidizement of the iron, in the stone and in the result of the analysis.

4. 100 grains of the earthly substance yielded,

Silica	48
Magnesia	18
Oxide of iron	34
Oxide of nickel	2½
	102½

Stone from Sienna.

The pyrites could not be separated.

8½ grains of the iron contained nearly,

Earthy matter nearly	1
Iron	6
Nickel	between 1 & 2

The globular bodies were too few to be analyzed.—150 grains of the stone, freed from iron by the magnet, and as exempt as possible from the globular bodies, afforded, (exclusively of the weight of sulphur contained in the disseminated pyrites,)

Silica	70
Magnesia	34
Oxide of iron	52
Oxide of nickel.	3
	159

Stone from Yorkshire.

34 grains of the malleable particles yielded,

Oxide of iron	37½
Nickel	4
Earthy matter	4

150 grains of the earthy part of the stone afforded,

Silica	75
Magnesia	37
Oxide of iron	48
Oxide of nickel	2
	162

Stone from Bohemia.

$16\frac{1}{2}$ grs. metallic particles yielded,

Extraneous earthy matter -	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Iron about -	$12\frac{1}{2}$
Nickel - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$
	$16\frac{1}{2}$

55 grains of the earthy part afforded,

Silica - -	25
Magnesia -	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Oxide of iron -	$23\frac{1}{2}$
Oxide of nickel - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$
	$59\frac{1}{2}$

The author again remarks that the unusual increase of weight in the result of the three last analyses, notwithstanding the entire loss of the sulphur in the pyrites, is obviously owing to the metallic state of the iron combined with the sulphur.

In the latter part of his paper, Mr. Howard relates some experiments made by him on various kinds of native iron, which were presented to him by Mr. Greville and Mr. Hatchett. His experiments on the iron from South America coincided with those of M. Proust: the latter obtained 50 grains of sulphate of nickel from 100 of the mass: Mr. Howard obtained 80 grains of oxide of iron from 62 of the metal; and, from his process, he conceives that about $7\frac{1}{2}$ of nickel were indicated, or about 10 per cent.

100 grains of the native iron from Siberia gave 127 of oxide of iron; and hence it should contain about 17 per cent. of nickel.

50 grains of the yellowish green vitreous substance yielded,

Silica - -	[illegible]
Magnesia - -	[illegible]
Oxide of iron -	[illegible]
Oxide of nickel -	[illegible]
	47

$26\frac{1}{2}$ grains of the Bohemian iron left [illegible] of earthy matter, and afforded 30 grains of oxide of iron, [illegible] of nearly 5 of nickel.

145 grains of iron from Senegal [illegible] General O'Hara, and given to Mr. Howard by Mr. [illegible]

199 grains of oxide; hence there may be an estimation of 8 grains in 145, or between 5 and 6 per cent. of nickel.

'It will appear, (says Mr. H.) from a collected view of the preceding pages and authorities, that a number of stones asserted to have fallen under similar circumstances, have precisely the same characters. The stones from Benares, the stone from Yorkshire, that from Sienna, and a fragment of one from Bohemia, have a relation to each other not to be questioned.

'1st. They have all pyrites of a peculiar character.

'2dly. They have all a coating of black oxide of iron.

'3dly. They all contain an alloy of iron and nickel. And,

'4thly. The earths which serve to them as a sort of connecting medium, correspond in their nature, and nearly in their proportions.

'Moreover, in the stones from Benares, pyrites and globular bodies are exceedingly distinct. In the others they are more or less definite; and that from Sienna had one of its globules transparent. Meteora, or lightning, attended the descent of the stones at Benares, and at Sienna. Such coincidence of circumstances, and the unquestionable authorities I have adduced, must, I imagine, remove all doubt as to the descent of these stony substances: for, to disbelieve on the mere ground of incomprehensibility, would be to dispute most of the works of nature.

'Respecting the kinds of iron called native, they all contain nickel. The mass in South America is hollow, has concavities, and appears to have been in a soft or welding state, because it has received various impressions.

'The Siberian iron has globular concavities, in part filled with a transparent substance, which, the proportional quantity of oxide of iron excepted, has nearly the composition of the globules in the stone from Benares.

'The iron from Bohemia adheres to earthy matters studded with globular bodies.

'The Senegal iron had been completely mutilated before it came under my examination.

'From these facts, I shall draw no conclusion, but submit the following queries.

'1st. Have not all fallen stones, and what are called native irons, the same origin?

'2dly. Are all, or any, the produce or the bodies of meteors?

'And, lastly, Might not the stone from Yorkshire have formed a meteor in regions too elevated to be discovered?

'Specimens of the Benares and Yorkshire stones have been deposited, by the President, in the British Museum.'

[*To be continued.*]

Art. V. *Miss* Hamilton's *Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education.*

[*Article concluded from the last Review, p.* 408—416.]

Those who are acquainted with the excellent treatise of Locke on the Conduct of the Understanding, or who have profited by the maxims of the pious Watts on the Improvement of the Mind, will be rather surprized, perhaps, on seeing a lady undertake to tread a similar path, and to give directions on the management of the intellectual powers. Let them, however, suspend their admiration for a moment: here is no female champion arisen, who seeks to contest the prize with those veteran heroes. Miss Hamilton's plan, in this second part of her work, is not to make additions to the rules which have been ably laid down for the conduct of the mind: but, taking a more humble station, she proposes to furnish parents, nurses, and superintendants of young children, with the proper theory of the infant mind, and with the most effectual method of fostering the tender bud of intellect.

In the former volume, Miss H. called her reader's attention more particularly to those early associations, which have an influence on the passions and affections; and which, as distinct from the intellectual powers, she denominates the *heart.*—In this second volume, on the same principle of association, she proceeds to point out the extreme importance of guarding every early impression on the mind, which may tend to bias and direct the reasoning powers.

Letter I. contains some preliminary observations, and states the importance of obtaining a knowlege of the intellectual faculties in order to cultivate them with success. This is shewn as it regards the exercise of taste, imagination, reason, &c. *Taste,* Miss H. very properly distinguishes from *predilection*; since the latter may be exercised without a perception of real excellence. These observations the author considers as applicable to the *female mind,* as well as to that of man; and she reprobates the degrading system of inferiority in the treatment of the fair sex:—'a treatment worthy only of the discipline used in the zenanas of Eastern despots.'

Letter II. *On Perception.*—This term the author applies to denote the impression made on the mind by all the objects of sense. The consequence of watching over the early perceptions of children is shewn on various accounts; and very justly in the following passage:

> 'Every science which the human mind can pursue, every study in which it can engage, demands, as a preliminary, an attention to the objects of perception. In proportion as this attention has been ren-

> dered habitual to the mind, from the earliest stage of life, will the rudiments of science be easy, and the progress delightful. A child who has been accustomed to pay attention to its perceptions, has received, from the various objects of sense, a fund of ideas which are ready to be brought into use; these, by the power of association, assist the mind in forming new conceptions. Children, who, either through the reprehensible neglect of their parents, or from some defect in their original conformation, have never made this improvement of their perceptive faculties, are, and necessarily must be, slow in comprehending any subject. They want, as it were, the first link of the chain, and have nothing whereon to fasten the new ideas with which you present them.'

The mistakes of parents, in their management of this faculty in children, are here pointed out.—We think that Miss H. contradicts her former theory, when she observes that a *severe fall* is apt to have a bad effect, from the association of terror in a child; and though her experience may be just, when she says that *attention* begins about the third or fourth month of infancy, we much doubt whether *almost all* a young child's ideas are derived from *sight*. We should attribute a great share of them to the sense of feeling, or the touch.

Letter III. *Attention.*—To illustrate the efficacy of cultivating the attention, the fair writer observes that hunters, sailors, &c. by fixing their eyes on distant objects, are able to discern things which to other persons are invisible. This may be true: but that, for the same reason, the peasantry are never *near-sighted*, we cannot admit: if instances be more rare among them, yet we believe that they are often so; and so are children, without suspecting it.—In this letter, we meet with a curious example of the effect of an *early attention* to smell:

> 'A person who has a natural antipathy to a cat, will immediately discover when one is in the room, even though it should be effectually hid from his sight. The same species of sagacity I once saw in a lady, who had an antipathy to dead birds. Soon after entering the parlour of a friend's house, where she went on a morning visit, she grew sick, and instantly declared that there must be a dead bird in the room. The bird-cage was immediately examined, and poor Dicky found dead at the bottom of the cage!'

In order fully to ascertain this point, however, it might be necessary to serve such a person as the Abbé Spallanzani did the Bat, and to blind-fold the lady at least, though not to put out her eyes, before she was admitted into the room:—but we close this letter with a more serious and more excellent subject of *attention:*

> 'Addressing myself to professed Christians, I should not have thought it neccessarry to say so much upon this subject, if I had not observed the erroneous ideas concerning it, which now prevail. What

harm is there in doing this? what sin is there in that? is the common answer to every objection against pursuing the pleasures or the business of life on Sunday. From the scope of my argument it will appear, that the *harm* and the *sin* arises from perpetuating trains of thought, foreign to all that is of real importance to our eternal welfare. Such a total change of employment on every seventh day, as will serve to break these associations which tie our hearts to the world, and to introduce trains of thought favourable to devotional sentiment, to self-examination, to humility, and benevolence, cannot be deemed a matter of small importance; and most earnestly would I recommend it to parents to accustom their children from infancy to this change. The change of employment ought, indeed, to be so managed as to produce delight; which it will never do, if Sunday be made a day of wearisome idleness, or of gloomy restraint. Let it be a day of love, of cheerfulness, of familiar intercourse with your children. Let their little hearts be led to rejoice in Him who made them. Turn their attention to observe his goodness in the works of creation and providence. Make them sensible of the benignity which decreed a day of rest to those inferior animals, which are so useful to man: and by every means in your power, endeavour to introduce upon the day set apart for the service of God those trains of thought, which are connected with the emotions of delight and gratitude.

'It has been already observed, how far our associations are influenced by time, and place. By this law of the human mind, the advantages attending public worship will be sufficiently explained. Every prayer to God for Divine grace to assist us in conquering the evil dispositions to which we are, alas! too prone, introduces associations favourable to virtue: and if any particular hour of the day is habitually thus employed, the return of that hour will introduce these associations to the mind. Hence the advantages of devoting the morning to religious exercises. The train of thoughts introduced by these is the best preservative against temptation.'

The doctrine of association cannot be more piously nor more judiciously inforced.

Letters IV. V. VI. *On Conception.*—It would exceed our limits to attempt to give an abstract of these letters; and indeed the reasoning which they contain, founded principally on Locke's observations on the power of discerning, is not arranged in that clear systematical manner which could admit of any just analysis. Perception, conception, and attention, are here treated, as it were, together.—Many excellent observations will be found in these letters: but, as the author has nowhere defined her meaning of *Conception,* and leaves her readers to *infer* it, we shall in like manner submit it to our readers to do the same, from an example which Miss H. gives of *mistaken conception* in reading authors:

'A good lady I once knew, who devoted much of her time to the instruction of the ignorant. It happened, that I was by one morning when one of her little *protegées* was reading to her in the Bible. The subject was the taking of Jericho. At every time that Joshua marched round the walls, a pause was made, and a lecture given by the good lady on the wonder-working power of Providence; of which I evidently saw her little auditor understood not one word. At length the trumpets sounded, and " now, Betty, now you will see how the walls of this wicked place will fall at the prophet's voice!"

'I here begged leave to speak, " Pray, Betty, what was Jericho? was it a man, or a woman, or a place, or what?"

" I believe it was a woman, Ma'am," returned Betty, with great *sang-froid.*'

Letters VII. VIII. IX. *Judgement.*—In the first of these letters, the importance of *exercising* the judgement of children, instead of *controlling* it, is ably inforced from the errors in life which flow from the source of this neglect; from unjustifiable attachment to *party;* and from the mistakes which want of judgement produces in reading history. The fatal effect of leading young minds to form a wrong judgement is shewn in female education, in particular, by the departure of so many *amiable unfortunates* from the path of virtue; whose apology Miss H. thus eloquently offers:

'Let it be represented to the juries, who are called (alas, so often!) to pronounce upon the heinous conduct of shameless matrons, that the creatures, whose crimes are thus exposed to public scorn, can scarcely be deemed accountable agents; since, in our ideas of accountableness, rationality is always included. Now ample proof can be brought, that from the cradle upwards, every possible pains have been taken to destroy the rational faculty. Without judgment, there can be no knowlege of first principles; without first principles, there can be no rule of conduct or of duty. How, then, can creatures be said to transgress against principles which they never had it in their power to comprehend? They were taught, that the sole duty of woman was *to be amiable.* That in order to be amiable, they must be accomplished and genteel; that is to say, that they must learn to dance, and dress, and " nickname GOD's creatures;" to talk sentiment, to affect sensibility, and to follow fashion into whatever follies she may lead. Have they not done all this? And now mark the inconsistency of man! They are accused of sinning against the laws of GOD and of their country; when they can call GOD, their country, and their parents, to witness, that their judgment was never sufficiently cultivated to pronounce upon the truth and propriety of a single precept, moral or divine! They were taught to look on personal admiration as the chief good; when they found it was no longer to be expected from the husband, were they to blame for seeking it in the admirer? Of all that they were taught to believe amiable, they are still possessed; for no one estimable quality of the heart or understanding was in the catalogue! Sensibility and sentiment comprised their only notions of virtue; and by giving way to sensibility and sentiment they became adulteresses; or to speak in the more delicate terms of modern refinement, *amiable unfortunates.*'

The next letter, on the subject of *Judgement*, contains some farther remarks on studying history; in which the author (in our opinion, very justly,) prefers the study of a *detached period* to the perusal of a series of history, for the improvement of young persons.—At page 234, the word *poetical* seems to be printed for *political*; and in the next page the auxiliary *would* is substituted (*more Scotorum*) for *should.*—It is not a new remark that a certain species of absurd novels tends to corrupt the judgement.—We are surprized at the observation that 'a sensible child will soon perceive that nothing can exist without a cause.' Would Miss Hamilton forbear to attempt to give a child some idea of the being of a God?—In this letter, also, contrary to Solomon's advice, Miss H. remarks that female education *in former times* was better than in these. We shall not decide whether the lady "inquires wisely" concerning this point.

The succeeding letter on Judgement contains additional illustrations of the method of cultivating it, and points out some useful particulars in the education of the poor; particularly the religious education of both classes.—Having been informed that some pious persons have taken umbrage at what has been advanced in the former volume on the subject of religion, Miss Hamilton has scrupulously re-examined what was there introduced; and she is still of opinion that, 'where there are no conceptions, there can be no belief.'—In a limited sense, this proposition is true: but certainly there are many points which all religious persuasions admit, such as eternity, &c. although no adequate *conception* of such matters can be possibly formed.

Letter x. *Imagination and Taste.*—We were not so much gratified as we expected, in the perusal of this letter. Many of the observations are familiar; and few, if any, are put in a new light, or forcibly illustrated. The intention is to shew that the cultivation of all the intellectual faculties is requisite, in order to lay a foundation for a just taste or a lively fancy; and, to confirm this theory, the author *supposes* that Shakspeare's mother was a *woman of plain good sense.*—It is here asserted that a susceptibility to the emotion of taste does not altogether depend on the original frame of our nature. We grant that cultivation is able to do much: but yet we agree with our friend Horace, that all the advantages in the world, even a *mother of plain good sense*, would little avail—"*sine divite venâ.*"—Our taste, or our imagination, is not accurate enough to understand Miss H. in the following

passage,

passage, so far as to comprehend the enchanting *beauty* of *sound;* though it may be true that

> 'By the ideas associated with them, a thousand sounds that are in themselves indifferent, nay, some that are rather in their natures disagreeable, become pregnant with delight. I have for the last half-hour been leaning on my elbow, listening to the distant tinkling of the sheep-bell, a sound so perfectly in unison with the surrounding scenery, as to appear enchantingly beautiful.'

The *power of vibrations* will perhaps appear to be better understood by the author, from this *additional chord:*

> 'It is no small incitement to the cultivation of taste, to reflect, that the emotions of sublimity and beauty are connected, not only with our devotional, but with our moral feelings. They coalesce not with any of the dissocial or malevolent passions; and can never be experienced while the mind is under their influence. By rendering the mind susceptible of the emotions of taste, we not only expand the circle of human pleasures, but as every emotion, of which the heart is capable, has a tendency to produce emotions that are in the same key, we give an additional chord, if I may so express it, to the harmony of the virtues.'

The cultivation of *taste* is recommended in *female education*; and we agree with the author that the care of parents, when they express their intention of giving their children a taste for this or that pursuit, often extends no farther than procuring for them perhaps a quarter of a year's instruction in that accomplishment:

> 'The emotions of taste, are, I believe, particularly congenial to the female mind; but it deserves our serious enquiry, how far the common mode of female education tends to cultivate, or to destroy, this natural susceptibility. When we hear a mother speak of giving her daughters *a taste for music, and a taste for painting*, we may, nine times in ten, conclude, that she means nothing more by the expression, than exciting in her children an ambition to exhibit to advantage their practical skill in these accomplishments.'

Letters XI. XII. *Abstraction.*—By Abstraction, Miss H. implies an acquirement of the habit of *generalizing ideas*, and of being able to take an enlarged view of causes and consequences. This faculty is here supposed to have been possessed in an eminent degree by our first parent Adam:

> 'And here we may remark, that in the account given us by Moses of the state of our first parents on their creation, the faculty of ABSTRACTION is represented as forming a distinguishing feature in the character of man, as he came from the hands of his great Creator. The capability of giving appropriate names to the animal creation was such a proof of the possession of this faculty, as unassisted reason would not probably have thought of producing, especially at a period when it is not to be supposed that the argument could be fully understood.'

We cannot speak to this point. Adam's *transgression* shews, alas! that he did not always take an *enlarged view of the consequences* of an action:—but let us hear how the fair writer applies the faculty of *Abstracting* to the education of females, as a point of much importance:

'Does it never happen, that a woman, from being incapable of taking a comprehensive view of her own and her husband's interests, unwittingly contributes to the ruin of both? Does no inconvenience ever arise from the pursuit of pleasures, which reason would disapprove? Do eager disputes concerning trifles never throw a little mud into the perennial stream of matrimonial felicity? Let these questions be answered by experience, and whatever may be pronounced with regard to youth and beauty, the cultivation of the reasoning powers will, to the married woman, be allowed not altogether unnecessary.'

This reasoning might have been illustrated by the example of *Eve;* who, in this sense, certainly shewed much deficiency in the power of *abstracting*, whatever was the case with Adam.

There are some passages in these letters on Abstraction, in which Miss H. will perhaps alarm many good mothers by her abstract notions and expressions; and the *energy of mind*, which is here required to be called into action, sometimes borders not a little on that quality which the author herself has known how to satirize in *modern philosophers.* Some inaccurate and inelegant phrases also occur in this part of the work: but we shall only farther observe on these two letters, that we conceive that they might be reduced to a more familiar style, and might be more adapted to *common apprehensions*, with much advantage. They might also be compressed, and the quotations omitted.

Letter XIII. On *Reflection.*—This letter, with which the volume concludes, places in many points of view the necessity and advantages of cultivating the power of reflection. The following extract will give some idea of the author's sentiments on the subject:

'In exact proportion as the power of reflection is enjoyed, shall we reap advantage from the cultivation of every other faculty. If incapable of applying our judgments respecting right or wrong to ourselves, we shall not be much the better for their accuracy. If we cultivate imagination so as to produce the most brilliant combinations, and are without the power of reflecting on their tendency, and from an examination of our own heart, discovering the emotions and dispositions which produced them, we may amuse ourselves by wandering in the flowery fields of fancy, but *will* (shall) never gather any of its precious fruits.

'Without the exercise of reflection, the faculty of abstraction is a dangerous gift. If we are incapable of referring to our own consciousness for the truth of those opinions derived from general reasoning, we shall be liable to be imposed upon by sophistry; and be destitute of means to detect the imposition. Even in the cultivation of taste, it is impossible to proceed to any length without the exercise of reflection. Those who are destitute of this power never can be made to comprehend the principles upon which taste is founded. They, therefore, suppose the emotions of sublimity and beauty to be derived from some inherent instinct, as natural and as universal as that which assists us in distinguishing sweet from bitter. Nor without reflection upon the operations of their own minds, is it possible that they should see it in a different light'

We have now conducted our readers to the close of Miss Hamilton's treatise on Education; and from the length of our review it will be obvious that, though we have suggested some disapprobation of particular passages, and have questioned some of the sentiments, we consider it altogether as meriting serious attention from those who are interested in the education of youth. We may more particularly recommend it as pointing out, with a skilful hand, the proper *principles* of education; and, with a becoming humility, grounding those principles on the basis of revealed religion.

Art. VI. *Plans and Views in Perspective, with Descriptions, of Buildings erected in England and Scotland:* And also an Essay, to elucidate the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic Architecture; accompanied with Designs. By Robert Mitchell, Architect. Folio. 3l. 3s. boards, plain; 4l. 4s. coloured. Taylor.

It is a practice with many persons, in their early attempts in architecture, to publish specimens when they would be much better employed in studying models from the more able works of proficients; from which they might learn that drawing, without other acquisitions, is not sufficient to constitute an architect. We have often felt an unwillingness to mention these defective productions, on the success of which the author probably relies for his reputation: but we are sometimes called to exercise our functions with regard to them, by the manner in which they are given to the world.

Mr. Mitchell does not require our 'meed of praise,' since he is fully adequate to the office of eulogist, in describing his own work as containing 'one of the most elegant and convenient mansions,'—which displays 'elegant style,'—'elegant composition,' &c. &c.: nor, perhaps, will he much regard any opinion of a contrary tendency which we may express. Yet we cannot reconcile our ideas of propriety with the habitation on a *ferme ornée* being masked by a stately portico: nor with a bedchamber-passage, or the landing of a staircase, being denominated a music-gallery. In the superior departments of arrangement, &c. peculiar correctness and accommodation could not be expected from works of this class: at least, we must confess that we have not been able to discern them in these designs. As *drawings*, the views are very creditable to Mr. Mitchell's abilities: but we have already observed that this talent alone will not form an architect.

In the essay intended to *elucidate* the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic architecture, the author observes that 'Architecture, as an art connected with science, had not existence till the invention of a column, and its application in the construction of buildings.' This is a position which we consider as indefinite and uncertain. If we credit some historians, buildings commenced with an arrangement of columns, on which the roof was placed; and successively the intervals between the columns were filled up, and a complete inclosure formed. Others assert that caves afforded the primeval prototype; and that, in enlarging the size of their structures, the early builders first applied the column internally to support the covering. Local matters and habitudes might induce either proceeding; instances of both kinds being found among the rudest savages, and in the portable mansions of the wandering tribes, in which the column becomes an essential part.—Again; Mr. M. says;

> 'Whoever will investigate the subject will, it is apprehended, find that there never have existed, in any age or nation, but three styles of architecture, the Grecian, the Roman, and the Gothic; as all other forms which have been introduced, shew architecture either in the progress which it afterwards attained, or on its decline.'

We cannot agree that the author has 'well investigated' the subject; for, what is the Chinese architecture to be esteemed? Is it Grecian, Roman, or Gothic? Surely, also, many others form a greater distinction than can possibly exist between the Grecian and Roman columns; which at the most can be reckoned only as varieties generated from the same stock.

> 'The earliest specimens (Mr. M. farther observes) which at this time exist, but which were well known to the Greeks, of buildings in which columns had been introduced, were in the temples of the Egyptians, and which we are assured have existed five thousand years. However striking these temples may *appear* from their uncommon magnitude, the columns in their composition *appear* exceedingly gross, as no regard has been paid to give proportions to their forms, nor to produce harmony in their arrangements. The capitals of their columns do not *appear* to have been copied from natural objects, but are fantastical shapes which owe their origin to the caprice of the inventors.'

We shall leave it to others to dispute the age of these Egyptian buildings: but, as to the fantastical shapes of their capitals, we apprehend that the author has not seen many representations of them. Where do finer imitations of nature exist, than in some of the specimens on the island of Philæ, near the cataracts in Upper Egypt?—and respecting their capitals of other shapes, we ought not to condemn them without inquiring into the causes which gave rise to the different forms produced in remote ages, and by distant people. There is much reason for believing that the Egyptian forms, particularly in their sacred structures, were in almost every instance symbolical; and while their regard to this subject occasioned that style to predominate, no doubt it was with them an object of the greatest admiration. The style being determined, it is poor criticism to condemn the parts which harmonize with the whole;—and where do we find buildings that exceed those of the Egyptians in massive grandeur? He who condemns the style of any particular country without possessing a knowlege of the notions, customs, superstitions, and relative circumstances of that country, resembles the man who should disapprove the form of a horse because it was not the same with that of some other animal. A little attention shews us that each has its parts suited to the intended purpose. The style may be good or bad according to its locality, or the uses to which it was to be applied. That of the Egyptians might be good in that age, and under the system of religion then prevalent on the borders of the Nile: it may be bad at this time in England.

We shall not occupy the attention of our readers with observations on more of this author's opinions; nor with the often repeated description of the Gothic architecture, being far from thinking that what he advances will tend to bring it to 'a perfection hitherto unknown:' but we must briefly remark, concerning the designs intended to elucidate what he calls the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic styles, that we cannot admire his mode of appropriating the forms of temples to dwellings; since we conceive that the external character should declare the designation of the interior. We hope that, in Mr. M.'s promised 'extensive treatise,' some attention will be paid to propriety in this respect: but that work will probably not be the worse if the author should previously devote a few years to the study of antient and distant architecture, in order to correct the questionable distinctions which occur in the present essay.

Art. VII. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture:* on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and Internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. III. Part I. 4to. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1802.

Scarcity and dearness of grain induce governments to try various experiments, and to recommend new measures, in order to correct and prevent the return of the evil: but it may be much questioned whether their interference, except as far as it relates to procuring an immediate supply by importation, and recommending economy in consumption, be of any national utility. These maladies may arise not from any radical defect immediately existing in, and distinctly belonging to, our agricultural system, but from temporary or extraneous causes; and, since there is in human affairs a continual action and re-action, the disease itself works its own cure, without requiring those alterations and new regulations which in the alarm of the moment may be considered as imperiously demanded. To avoid one extreme, men often precipitate themselves on its opposite; or they satisfy themselves with those half-measures which, while they seem to do much, in effect accomplish nothing. In the scarcity of 1794, an alteration was made, by what is called Alderman Skinner's Bill, in the law for regulating the assize; apparently without considering that, under the former act, bread had for many years been at a very reasonable rate; and that there was no solid ground for imputing any part of the dearness to the existing statutes. The complaints against monopolizing were nearly of the same description; because, though scarcity or deficiency of crop affords to dealers in corn that opportunity of speculating to advantage, of which it is reasonable to suppose they will avail themselves, yet the monopoly is the consequence and not the source of the mischief; for no sooner do abundant harvests throw plenty into the market, than all complaints against these *rogues in grain* lose their foundation.

The late scarcity having been more alarming than that of 1794, its causes have been more seriously discussed; and it has led to an inquiry into the real productiveness of the kingdom, compared with its actual demand. The result of this investigation is that the culture of corn has been on the decline; and that a disposition has prevailed among farmers, to convert arable land into pasture. With the alleged motive of promoting the growth of corn, a number of inclosure bills have been passed; though facts have shewn that the tendency of inclosures is to encourage pasturage. Year after year, the inclosing scheme has proceeded with accelerated velocity; and yet corn has been dear and the poor-rates advancing. At last, it was suggested that the desired object would be attained if landlords would, on a valuable compensation being given, allow tenants to plough up certain portions of their farms, which by their leases they were bound to keep in grass. This idea was deemed of so much importance, that a Committee of the House of Lords referred itself for advice to the Board of Agriculture, requiring it "to examine into, and to report to their Lordships, the best means of converting certain portions of Grass-Lands into Tillage, without exhausting the soil; and of returning the same to grass, after a certain period, in an improved state, or at least without injury." In consequence of this requisition of the Lords, the Board of Agriculture endeavoured to obtain the fullest information, by offering premiums for the best Essays on this subject; and the volume before us is the result of this appeal to the intelligent body of British Cultivators.

It may fairly be presumed that the several writers, on the subjects proposed by the Board for discussion, were more influenced by motives of a patriotic kind than stimulated by the proposed rewards, in communicating their respective sentiments; and it is highly gratifying to us, because it is honourable to the character of the English Farmer, to perceive the vein of good reasoning and sound judgment which pervades the whole. Indeed, the general impression will be that Farmers require not the leading-strings of Government; and that the proposition, to which the inquiry was designed to serve as a basis, embraced but a very small part of the subject to which it belonged. Be this, however, as it may; a number of sensible Essays have been obtained, some professedly not in claim of premiums, and others competitors for reward.

Among the former description, are those which have been furnished by Sir John Sinclair, Dr. Walker, Mr. Dalton, Mr. Maxwell, and Sir Charles Middleton. These papers are short, but they merit attention.—Sir John Sinclair distinguishes, as do all the writers in this volume, between land which ought to be kept perpetually in grass, and that which may be broken up and laid down again to advantage:

> 'It is the opinion (says he) of Mr. Culley, that soft heavy loams, with a clayey or marly bottom or substratum, are universally injured by ploughing. Water meadows, also, should never be ploughed, as they furnish so large and valuable a produce in spring, in summer, and in autumn, without any other help than water, whilst the manure made from that produce goes to enrich the rest of the farm.
>
> 'With these exceptions, and that of land apt to be overflowed, there is every reason to believe that old pastures may occasionally be converted,

converted, with public advantage, and private benefit, into arable land.'

In opposition to this doctrine, suited as it seems to the exigencies of the times, the reader will find some sturdy advocates in behalf of the old pastures.

Dr. Walker attributes the decline of tillage to a growing preference for, and increased consumption of, animal food.

Mr. Dalton thus delivers his sentiments respecting meadows:

> 'If old grass land, which answers well the valuable purposes of meadow, feeding, and the dairy, has a good colour, and is never mossy, I should not recommend the converting it to tillage at all, as I am fully persuaded, that after being delivered over to a tenant to be ploughed for eight or nine years, let the landlord or his agents take what care and precaution they will, they will not for many years see it equal to what it was formerly.'

Sir Charles Middleton and Mr. Maxwell detail their practice of breaking up and laying down.

The dissertation in this volume, which seems to merit most attention, is that which stands at the head of the prize-essays, by the Rev. H. J. Close, of Hordle, near Lymington. Besides the observations designed to meet the specific requisitions of the Board, Mr. C. volunteers some important introductory remarks, in which the good qualities of his head and heart are equally conspicuous. Among the obstacles to agricultural improvement, he enumerates tithes,—'the difficulty and expense of inclosing waste lands,—expensive and injudicious leases,—want of knowlege in the practical farmers,—the great increase of the poor-rates,—and a want of that energy, which formerly characterized the agricultural labourers of this island.'

On the first of these subjects, he thus states his opinion:

> 'Though a clergyman, and deriving the chief support for myself, a wife, and eight children, from the revenues of the Church, yet I must candidly acknowlege, that tithes operate as a direct tax on the skill, the capital, and industry of the country; and I believe most of my brethren would rejoice, could any other mode of payment be devised, which would secure to them, and their successors, the same rank in society which they now fill with so much credit to themselves, and with such advantage to the community. I am aware that this is a subject of the utmost importance, and that it will require the attention of the most skilful politician, to relieve the country from this oppressive tax, without injury to a most respectable and useful body of men. Indeed it is a subject which involves in it every thing which an Englishman—a Christian, can hold dear. Our political and religious polity will be more firmly established, or shaken to the very foundations, as this question, whenever it may be agitated by the legislature, shall be well or ill conducted. Under these impressions, I should enter upon the subject with no small degree of agitation,

tation, were I not conscious, that, should the opinions of an obscure individual, like myself, prove erroneous, they will remain unnoticed by your Lordship and the Board of Agriculture; and if ever they should meet the public eye, they will be equally disregarded by the good sense, which, in this enlightened æra of society, pervades the nation.

'The plan I am about to propose to the Board, is simply this:— Let the tithes of the kingdom be valued, and each proprietor of land have the refusal of the tithes of his own property at the valuation. Should this business be well conducted, the interest of half, or at most, three fourths, of the capital thus raised, and vested in the public funds, would secure to the clergy, the amount of their present incomes; and the remainder of the capital might be an accumulating fund, to prevent the present incumbents, or their successors, from suffering any injury by an advance on the necessary articles of life, and a consequent depreciation in the value of the circulating medium. Once in four or five years, the average of the price of wheat, the staple and most necessary grain in the country, should be taken; and should it appear that an advance had taken place, the incomes of those who had disposed of their tithes, should receive a proportionate addition. But as no power on earth should invade the property of any individual, or oblige him to dispose of it without his free consent, I would propose, that the attempt to release the nation from this tax, should originate with the King's most excellent Majesty, who is ever ready to alleviate the distresses, and add to the comforts of his people. His Majesty, with the consent of the Imperial Parliament, may undoubtedly dispose of all the preferment in the patronage of the Crown; and to induce the present incumbents to approve of such a measure, an addition to their incomes of fourteen or fifteen per cent. might be offered, to all those who have received a composition in lieu of tithes, and whose agreements commenced previous to the year 1795, or these years of scarcity. To others, the commissioners might make, in writing, such offers as seemed in their judgment equitable, from which no deviation should be made. Suppose the incomes of the parochial clergy, holding livings under the patronage of the Crown, to amount to 110,000l. a year; to this calculation, if it may be so termed, must be added at least one-third, to come near the full value of the tithes arising from this preferment, independent of those belonging to the dignitaries, which are not included. This would amount to upwards of 146,000 pounds *per annum*, and at only twenty-six years purchase, though tithes are usually sold at thirty, would raise the sum of 3,796,000l. which, at only four per cent., would secure to the clergy holding such preferment, their present incomes, and leave about 40,000l. a year as an accumulating fund. The effect this would have upon the public funds, must be evident. His Majesty would not be deprived of his patronage; the clergy and their successors would be secure of holding their present rank in the scale of society; and the agricultural interest of our island would be exonerated from a burden, which is as at present a constant subject of complaint. Were this scheme adopted, and put in practice with the livings in the gift of the Crown, and free liberty given to other patrons and incumbents to pursue the same plan, I am of opinion, no such mode of payment as tithes would subsist in twenty years. Let a proportion of every man's farm be free of tithes, and he may crop the other part so as to make it the interest of every lay impropriator to sell at a fair price; and with the clergy, there would be few who would make any objection, should the plan proposed appear to them, as it does to me, a very eligible one. I have been informed that Mr. Pitt has a scheme in agitation, somewhat similar to this Should this prove true, he will have my hearty good wishes and most sincere prayers for his success.'

We shall have an opportunity, before we close this article, of transcribing the opinion of another clergyman relative to tithes. In noticing the increase of the poors'-rate, and the modern mode of paying them and of doleing out the parish allowance, Mr. Close, has well explained the decline of that energy which formerly characterized the agricultural labourers of this island:

'Another evil has arisen from the same cause. These men have not only lost this stimulus to exertion, but such has been the pressure of the times, that the acting Magistrates have been under the necessity of giving another deadly blow to superior skill, strength, and energy, by their mode of applying relief. The plan, I have no doubt, was adopted as the most economical which could be devised, and economy in the distribution of parish money, was absolutely necessary. I do not mean therefore, to cast the least reflection on the acting Magistrates, where the plan, I am alluding to, has been put in practice. The gratitude of the country is due, in a great degree, to those gentlemen, who in these times of distress and difficulty, bear so large a propoition of the burden of the state, by discharging the duties of so necessary and so troublesome an office. A more equitable mode of relief, perhaps, could not be devised, but the effects have proved very injurious to the general welfare and prosperity of our island. The plan I allude to is that of ascertaining precisely, the earnings of each man, his wife and family, and enlarging or curtailing the parish allowance accordingly. This, at first view, may appear equitable, as every family must thus be enabled to live. But no one, by any exertion, can procure for himself and family any additional comfort. The effect of this levelling principle must be, that as all are paid alike, all will work alike; and as it is impossible, by any contrivance, to strain a man of a weakly frame, ignorant, and unskilful, up to a pitch, so as to equal one of double his strength and ingenuity, the latter will naturally relax, and will never exert himself, either by task or day work, to perform a greater proportion of labour than the former. These circumstances combined, have been attended with the most serious consequences. I am fully persuaded, that by the aggregate body of agricultural labours, not more than three-fourths of the same work is performed, as was done ten years back, by the same number of hands.'

When Mr. Close has dismissed the prefatory matter contained in the first chapter, and comes to the professed subject of his essay, he details the mode which he pursued in converting old sour grass-lands into tillage; and in order to give the Board an accurate idea of the advantages derived from it, he states the annual value of a farm when he purchased it, the money which he gave for it, the sum which he received for his improvements, the rent at which he let it on a twenty-one years' lease, and the price at which he afterward sold it.

'There were two hundred and thirty-five acres, valued at one hundred and twenty pounds *per annum*, (the tenant paying twenty pounds a year land-tax,) and the price I paid for it three thousand three hundred pounds. I received for my improvements of the tenant five hundred pounds; besides three hundred and fifty pounds which the old pollard trees sold for; let the farm for two hundred and twenty pounds, the tenant paying twenty pounds a year land-tax, and covenanting to keep all the buildings, &c. in perfect repair. I then sold it for six thousand five hundred pounds. The gross produce per acre of these old sour grass-lands could not exceed twenty shillings; and little or nothing was expended on productive labour. Ever since they have been converted into tillage, double the former gross income must have been expended for labour, and the aggregate produce at least six pounds and six shillings on every acre, including the whole rotation of crops. You have here, Gentlemen, one strong proof of the utility of converting certain portions of grass lands into tillage. This farm is now in such a high state of cultivation, that any part of it might be converted into meadow-land.'

A variety of other important information is also communicated: but we must dismiss this essay with transcribing the writer's brief conclusive opinion on the matter at issue: 'Fine rich meadows on the banks of rivers liable to be flooded, and such as can be irrigated, no one would think of converting into tillage, but all grass lands from ten to thirty shillings per acre rent, I should wish to see tilled by judicious agriculturists.'

The next paper is written by Mr. Thomas Davis of Longleat; who, in one respect, attributes the scarcity of wheat and the great quantity of land (particularly of strong wheat land) laid down to grass within the last twenty years, to the price of wheat not having advanced in proportion to that of every other production of land. In afterward describing the lands which ought to remain in grass, and those which ought to be in tillage, he lays down this maxim; that '*all land should be kept in that state in which it will yield the greatest* permanent *rent to the owner*, since whatever kind of husbandry is for the interest of individuals is, collectively, for the interest of the public.' Allowing this to be sound doctrine, it is best to permit agriculture, like trade, to find its own level; and not, by compulsion or restraint, obstruct its natural progress. Mr. Davis's answers to the questions proposed in the advertisement of the Board are generally judicious: but in one respect he differs from Mr. Close: viz. he recommends feeding grass the first year after it has been laid down, which Mr. Close (in p. 58.) strongly reprobates.

The succeeding Essay, by the Rev. Arthur Young, son of the celebrated agriculturist, will be read with much pleasure. The writer's remarks on the general principle, in which this inquiry originates, are pertinent; and he well explains, that which indeed ought always to be comprehended in the question under discussion, the external circumstances which lead to pasturage or tillage:

'If the price of corn, during a period of many years, be found to be lower, on a fair comparison, than the price of meat, butter, and cheese, it is reasonable to suppose that the conversion of the soil (if any) would be to pasturage; always carrying along with us the fact, that grass products are gained at less hazard, and at less expense to landlords, than arable ones; which will have a certain influence in favour of grass, under every possible variation.

'Now the fact has been, that from 1771 to 1794, being twenty-four years, the average price of wheat for all England was 5s. 8d. a bushel. We have no registers of the prices of meat, butter, and cheese; I must therefore assume a fact, in which I believe I need not fear contradiction, that the latter prices, whatever they might be exactly, were at least on the balance higher in proportion than wheat: the truth is, 5s. 8d. a bushel is much too low a price to induce any exertion in extending those efforts, which increase the product of corn.

'If the price of 1795 and 1796 had induced them to plough, what would they have said in 1797 and 1798? It is true, two high years have come since; but this does not prove that we shall not see wheat again at 5s. or 6s. a bushel; and what then will be the ideas of those men who have been induced to plough large tracts of land well adapted to grass? Such statements are of no use without the conclusion; which is, that the Legislature should, *by a revision of the corn laws, secure the landlord from the apprehension of future prices being too low to compensate the farmer for his expenses, and himself for permitting tillage.* This is easily done, and we may therefore hope it will be done.'

In laying down rules by which additions of rent should be estimated on breaking up pasture land, Mr. Young adverts to tithes taken in kind as an insurmountable obstacle. He supposes that the landlord's rent for the land to be ploughed up is now 15s. per acre; and, by taking a rotation of seven crops, he endeavours to shew that, reckoningthe tithe at 5s. per acre, the additional rent can only be 6s. 5d. He then adds:

'Those

'Those who think tithes are not prejudicial to agriculture, may examine such cases as these. Let us calculate this instance again, and suppose the tithe taken in kind.

		£. s. d.
One-third as before for rent, tithe, and rates -		1 12 5
Produce - - - -	£.35 6 0	
The tenth for tithe - -	3 10 7	
The seventh of which - -	0 10 1	
Rates - - - -	0 6 0	
		0 16 1
Remains rent		0 16 4

'Here, in one case, the landlord has an adequate inducement of 6s. 5d. additional rent; in the other he has 1s. 4d. which only could induce him to let the land remain in grass. In one case he would consent to breaking up, in the other he probably would not: the tithe of grass produce, taken in kind, could amount at the utmost to between 4s. and 5s.; but from the arable that sum is more than doubled; while the Rector therefore would get above 5s. an acre, the landlord would have only 1s. 4d. From this comparison it appears, that the Gentlemen who are apt to think tithe a small matter, when called only a tenth, (a proportion which they think has but little influence on the nine-tenths remaining,) mistate the matter; the preceding is evidently a case in which 10s. 1d. the tithe is measured with 26s. 5d. in one proportion being not far from two-fifths, and with 16s. 4d. rent in the other, in which it is much above half. Compare the tithe with another object, the farmer's profit; if his farm be stocked at 5l. per acre, and he make 12 per cent. it is 12s. Will any person contend that 10s. 1d. is not a sum that will in any branch of industry in the world have a material influence by its proportion to 12s.? Throw rent and profit together, 53s. the tithe is near to one-third. Those who measure it with gross produce only, talk idly; the produce is not the motive that influences the various applications of land, but the rent and profit; and if tithe bear a large proportion to these, it bears a powerful influence on the conduct of those who direct the product of the soil. If the farmer's stock be only 4l. an acre, (and more land is stocked with that sum than with 5l.) his profit is 9s. 7d.; that is less than the tithe of the same land: this is not the place for calculations to prove that the profits of husbandry should be estimated by a per centage on capital employed, and as to 12 per cent. no one will think the proportions unfair at average prices.

'The author of this Paper has a due veneration for the church, as sincere a veneration as those may have, who are violent against any commutation; he wishes prosperity to its temporal concerns; but he sees tithes in what he conceives to be the just light, and cordially wishes their possessors to receive their emoluments in some mode free from the numerous objections to the present method of paying them.'

We are sorry that we cannot make more quotations from this valuable and elaborate paper; in which an attention is recommended to the rise of the poor-rates and the price of labour, and in which the writer's opinion on the immediate topic of inquiry is thus explicitly given:

'I have great apprehensions that any encouragement to break up grass lands generally, will have mischievous consequences; ever excepting wastes, and grass fields on dry soils that evidently want the plough as the means of improvement. Should the present high prices of corn tempt landlords to permit much ploughing, where it is not really necessary, I have not the smallest doubt but they will suffer by it in the end.

'And as the Board would certainly desire to avoid giving advice which may prove eventually unfortunate, I humbly presume to add, that they cannot consider the subject too deeply, in all its most remote bearings and connections, before they offer any recommendations that shall have the least indiscriminate effect. If an increase of tillage be found essentially necessary, at a hazard, the waste lands of the kingdom are the proper subject for it, and by no means converting grass lands to tillage, which are advantageously employed at present; and which would admit, perhaps, the radical improvements of draining and manuring, very profitably in their present situation.'

The Rev. Edmund Cartwright follows Mr. Young in a more concise paper, which, however, discovers an intimate acquaintance with the subject. He concludes with remarking that, 'Should the agitation of a question, evidently brought forward by the peculiar exigency of the times, lead to a more extended cultivation of corn, without lessening the production of animal food, the present scarcity may be considered as having laid the the foundations of future plenty; and the public will have derived, in the event, a permanent blessing from a temporary evil.'

It is evident, from the motto to the next paper, which side of the question is taken by its author, Mr. Goring, of Weston near Steyning:

——— facilis descensus (aratro).
'Sed revocare pedem! ———
Hoc opus, hic labor est.

Mr. G. strenuously opposes the breaking up of old pasture land: but, though most of his observations merit attention, we must transcribe only one short passage:

'It seems less difficult to discover the best method of returning arable land to pasture, than to enforce the practice of it. Should a general licence be given to break up old pastures, the crops would be taken off, and the return of the dung would be forgotten. The injury to the public would be great, and almost irreparable. No particular mode of ploughing, or choice of corn-crops, however judicious, could make amends to the ground for the loss of its manure, and it would be in vain to expect from any superficial contrivances of art that success, and those solid advantages, which fall to the share only of unremitted labour, and unwearied assiduity. The earth is a kind mother if she be liberally treated; but seldom suffers herself to be cheated of her just dues with impunity.'

On the subject of paring and burning, when breaking up grass land, Mr. G. is also at variance with most of the authors in this volume, who generally contend for the utility of the practice. Dr. Campbell, of Lancaster, however, in the succeeding Essay, cautions farmers against having recourse to this mode, in the dry soil of the up and hard lands.

Dr. Wilkinson, of Enfield, wisely suggests that the temptation to break up the old sward may be attended with an evil not at first contemplated, viz. 'that, with a diminution of the quantity of grass, the number of cattle kept on a farm will probably be reduced, and the supply of dung lessened, while the demand for it is increased.' This is a very important consideration.—Dr. W. mentions the influence of irrigation in the re-production of sward, and the peculiar strength of tallow-chandlers' graves, as a manure:

'This is one of the strongest manures which the animal kingdom can furnish. When laid on grass land, it should be either spread very thin, and broken into small pieces, or applied in compost with mould. I have used it to the amount of a ton an acre, at half-a-crown a hundred weight. The grass was rendered so rank, that for some time cattle would not touch it, and the hay was too coarse for sale. On account of its rankness, I generally use it mixed with mould or ditch earth. Its effects are visible for some years after it has been laid on, in the superior verdure of the grass. On trying it for barley, it made the straw so rank, that it bore scarcely any grain; and the best method of applying it to arable land is to the turnip crop, where I have found it far superior to dung. I have been the more particular in mentioning its effects, as I have not found it noticed by any of the writers on husbandry.'

Mr. Boys, of Betshanger, Kent, recommends, among other pertinent advice, the conversion of grass or chalk land and downs into tillage, as one of the most advantageous improvements in agriculture, if well conducted.

Mr. Greenall, of Eccleston, Lancashire, is the author of the last Essay; which details the process and profit attending the conversion of some grass land into tillage, and concludes with the two following observations: to the former of which all will probably assent, but only among tenants can he expect to find subscribers to the latter:

'In converting grass lands into tillage, care should be taken that it is done in a manner that the prices of cattle may not increase be-

yond

yond their value, by their numbers being decreased by converting grass lands into tillage; this would be attempting to remove one evil, at the certainty of creating another.

'If old pastures are broken up, some other land must be laid down for pasture; and the only advantage the tenant can reap from it will be (perhaps) a better crop of corn from the fresh land; and if he lays the land down well that is for pasture, the expense of manuring, &c. will be equal to any advantage he will receive from ploughing the other. No increase of rent should take place; but the tenant should buy as much manure for the land laid down to pasture as the increased value of the crop of corn, which, perhaps, on an average, may be 4l. per acre, and also to provide all grass-seeds at his own expense.'

On the whole, the comparative statements and calculations here exhibited are curious and interesting. The prevailing opinion is that old rich pastures ought to be held sacred, but that there is an inferior kind of grass land which requires to be converted into arable. It cannot be supposed, however, that the agriculturist will resort to the plough unless he be prompted by interest: and, while the dairy produce and meat are at an exorbitant price, while a multitude of horses for pleasure and other purposes are kept, stock will be coveted, and the grass farmer will enjoy such peculiar advantages, that we cannot reasonably expect that the breadth of pasturage will sustain any considerable diminution. In order *to speed the plough*, the statesman must advert to other circumstances than its immediate operation.

Art. VIII. *Egypt*; a Poem, descriptive of that Country and its Inhabitants. Written during the late Campaign. By M. M. Clifford, Esq. of the Twelfth or Prince of Wales's Light Dragoons. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Evans. 1802.

From the time of Old Homer to the present, the theatre of great warlike atchievements has always been selected by the Muse as the favourite scene of her exertions, from a laudable solicitude of doing honour to heroic deeds, and of entwining the laureat wreath around the victor's sword. We are little surprised, therefore, to find Egypt the frequent subject of modern verse; and still less that a soldier, who from his youth had been accustomed to court the Muse, should solicit her assistance in describing the various objects which were presented to his view, during the late splendid campaign on the Banks of the Nile. This was Mr. Clifford's case: but at uncertain intervals only did he use his pen:

> "He left no calling for this idle trade;"

nor, like Horace at Philippi, *relictâ non bene parmulâ,* did he fail in the duties of his profession as a soldier, in order to rest his fame on his genius as a poet. To some indulgence he is therefore fairly intitled. He wrote under the immediate impression of surrounding objects; and, without affecting peculiar polish, he merely endeavoured to exhibit the natural feelings of his heart. In the precise form in which his poem was first composed, he suffers it to appear before the world:—as his thoughts flowed, 'during the avocations of military duty, in a small tent on the sands of Egypt, amidst the orange groves of Rosetta, or on the tempestuous bosom of the Mediterranean,' so they are now presented to the reader. This apology must excuse the want of high finishing; and perhaps the poem may be more generally impressive and acceptable, from the very circumstances under which it meets the public eye. Independently of these considerations, however, it has merit which would secure it notice and commendation, as our extracts will evince.—It consists of three Cantos, the first of which thus opens with an address to the author's Mistress:

> 'Come! social nymph, and with thee bear along
> The painter's pencil, and the poet's song;
> Bring my loved girl, in airy dreams, to range
> With me each diff'rent soil, each climate's change;
> Inspire my lays, and bid me firmly *bear*
> The shock of battle, and the din of *war*.
> To you then, mistress of my youthful lay,
> Guide of my hopes, and solace of my way,
> The Muse, unmindful of the sombre view,
> Has strung, with feeble hand, the lyre anew,
> And sings for thee, on Egypt's level shore,
> Ere haply, doom'd by fate, to sing no more.
> Ah! much-lov'd Emma, as the picture flies,
> With eager haste, to meet thy radiant eyes,
> Say, shall they still, with equal lustre, glow,
> Nor bid the tributary sorrow flow
> For him, whose inmost thoughts, untutor'd, bend,
> To seek for shelter with a softer friend.'

Then follows a description of the scenery of Egypt, with an account of the bravery of our troops, and a tribute to the memory of the lamented Abercrombie:

> 'Here then begin, where many a burning sun
> Has seen the days, in sullen sameness, run:
> Where Britain's hardy sons, in long array,
> Have toil'd the dewy night, and ling'ring day;
> Here, where the sand, in heap'd confusion lies,
> Have braved, for many a morn, the angry skies.

A gloomy view; yet still some guardian power
Has sought their welfare, in the dangerous hour,
And smiling Conquest oft has stoop'd to shed
Her laurell'd trophies on the warrior's head.
' Hence let us rove, to seek some happier scene,
Some valleys glowing with a livelier green,
Behold the race of man, through paths unknown,
And make his various manners all our own.
Yet, ere we leave this melancholy spot,
Is not one tender duty still forgot?
Shall not one Muse lament her hero's doom,
And drop the tear on Abercrombie's tomb?
No! tears should ne'er bedew a warrior's grave,
Nor mark the period of the good and brave;
Ah! far removed beyond the scanty praise,
The humble tribute, that my song conveys;
Happy, in death itself; its pangs above,
Who live eternal in a nation's love.
' Eastward we bend our steps; where, wide around,
Extended lakes the level prospect bound;
Where, o'er the waves, Aboukir's turrets rise,
And heap'd beside, the ruin'd hamlet lies;
Whilst, o'er the plains, seen glistening from afar,
The whiten'd bones attest the scourge of war;
When the fierce Turk, to shun a foe too brave,
Sought useless refuge in the whelming wave:
Where too the Briton, 'mid the cannons' roar,
Undaunted stepp'd upon the hostile shore;
Made the proud legions to his valour bow,
And tore Italia's laurel from their brow.
Hence, as we pass along the sea-beat shore,
Man and his works delight our eyes no more;
Hush'd is the scene, save, lightly flitting by,
Oft the hoarse sea-bird gives a mournful cry,
On where one building, on the lonely way,
Receives the wanderer at the close of day.
Dull sets yon evening sun beneath the wave,
That rolls its flood o'er many a Briton's grave,
Or erst by winds, in raging billows toss'd,
Casts his pale corse on Afric's barren coast;
There, while no friend affords the pitying tear,
Nor decks, with modest praise, his early bier,
Shrill screams the vulture for her destined prey,
And fell hyænas sound the knell of day.'—
' But soon the sands of desert Afric end,
And richer Egypt's loamy plains extend,
Where proud Rosetta, on the banks of Nile,
Greets the tired traveller with a constant smile;
There, richly deck'd with sun-reflecting towers,
Fann'd by the fragrance of her citron bowers,

High o'er her head the tall palmetto spreads,
Low at her feet its sweets the myrtle sheds,
Warm round the spot the glowing orange blooms,
And poignant lemons scatter fresh perfumes.
Here, where the sun ne'er darts his ardent ray
On the fresh fountains that incessant play,
The stern Turk watches, with religious care,
The secret harems that inclose the fair;
Through the dark walks the fair Circassians rove,
And youthful Georgians raise the song of love.
Yet not the forms of Asia's captive maids
Breathe pure delight amid these bowering shades;
The jealous eye, that speaks the care-worn breast,
The look of malice, in each glance express'd,
Correct their smiles, and bid illusive art
Usurp the native feelings of the heart.'

The subsequent picture of the beautiful and unfortunate Georgian slave is drawn with skill, in *glowing* colours.—The march of our army on the Banks of the Nile, and the effects of the plague, are thus portrayed:

'Slow on thy banks, our army winds along,
Pride of my verse, and parent of my song;
Thy banks, erewhile with lofty sedges grac'd,
Or palm-trees towering to the distant waste;
Or near some mosque, with varied emblems crown'd,
The lonely cypress throws a shadow round.
Where, in yon deep recess, no straggling gleam
Of sunshine wantons on the placid stream,
A rude boat lies, in which, with parting breath,
Two feeble victims court the hand of death.
Ah! come not near, the dire contagion shun,
Deep in their veins infectious poisons run,
Plague on their tainted breath destructive lies,
And livid venom sparkles in their eyes.
Exiled to die unseen, from mortals driven,
Like him who first sustain'd the curse of heaven;
Exiled by man, who, bent himself to save,
Consigns a friend, or brother, to the grave.
Thus the poor deer, by deep-mouth'd hounds pursued,
Whose fellows drive him from his native wood,
Flies to the stream, to cool his inward fires,
Rolls in its wave, and in its depths expires.'

The second Canto, addressed to Mr. Hayley, is partly historical, and partly descriptive of the different inhabitants of Egypt. Their miserable fate in every age is pathetically rehearsed; and the characters of the Arab, Bedouin, Mamlouk, and Bey, are ably delineated. The following is a well-drawn and living picture of the Bedouin:

'Mark, then, yon form! that, with impetuous haste,
Seeks the deep shelter of the sandy waste,
Spurs his fierce steed, to emulate the wind,
And leave the cultivated world behind;
There, whilst around the eddying whirlwinds rise,
And tempests mutter through the lurid skies,
Sudden he hides his solitary form,
And seems the angry genius of the storm;
The savage Bedouin, whose earliest hour,
Spurns the rude grasp of kings, and kingly power,
Mocks their gilt palaces, and crimson'd state,
Born the proud arbiters of human fate:
For him though Fortune builds no legal throne,
His scanty comforts still are all his own;
The milk and fleece his wandering flocks supply,
The camel feeds beneath his guardian eye;
The swift steed, neighing, owns his master's care,
Crops the thin herbage, and inhales the air;
Wide is his range, o'er many a boundless plain,
From Afric stretching to the Indian main,
The wandering tribes extend, in lawless sway,
The hardy children of the god of day.
There where, unknown, the deep Oasis sheds
A partial shelter on their sun-burnt heads,
To where rich Suez, on the golden sands,
Dispenses commerce to more distant lands;
Bids her long trains the sandy Desert brave,
And trusts her treasures to the Eastern wave.
On these wild plains the Bedouin alone
Builds his rude empire, and his wandering throne,
Asserts his rule, and, darting on his prey,
Scares the rich merchant from his toilsome way.'

In the third Canto, addressed to his mother, Mr. C. hails the return of peace, and meditates with satisfaction on the exchange of Egypt for his native country; yet in bidding adieu to this land, so celebrated for its plagues and miseries, he expresses a kind wish for its future happiness:

'Peace gives the world repose, and fondly calls
Her scatter'd children to their native halls;
And, whilst she joyous views her fav'rite isle,
Bids all her sons participate the smile.
Pleased, as my fond imagination strays
Where Thames, in dalliance with his wood-nymphs, plays,
Or softer-bosom'd Vagu mildly yields
Her liquid treasures to Silurian fields,
I too her voice obey; the swelling sail
Yields its full bosom to the favouring gale;
Scarce can my eyes the lessening hills pursue,
And the tall column fades before my view.

'Egypt, a long farewell! my steps no more
Shall print, at early dawn, thy sandy shore;
No longer shall I court, at eve's still hours,
Some Muse, yet lingering in thy citron bowers,
And listen to her song; whilst every strain
Invokes the moral genius of the plain.
Lonely he strays, and views, with tearful eye,
Long scenes of horror pass successive by,
Hears his lost children breathe the useless prayer,
And sigh for scenes of bliss they cannot share;
Whilst youthful Pity feels her bosom heave,
And mourns, without the power to relieve.
 'Perchance, yet labouring in the womb of Fate,
E'en these sad realms some happier hours await;
Unnoticed Science yet may build her throne
On those same plains, that once she call'd her own;
And, from the world at large, her sons invite,
To bring her hidden stores again to light;
So when some stream, along the meads convey'd,
Neglected, stagnates in a distant glade,
Here its broad arm the bending willow flings,
Dank in the pool the flowery bulrush springs,
From the unwholesome draught the cattle shrink,
And, unrefresh'd, yet linger on the brink;
The shepherd comes, he clears the weeds away,
Again he views the crystal waters play,
Catch the new gleam, and sparkle at the day.'

The present popularity of the subject would excuse our having thus extended our extracts, if the verse of Mr. Clifford had fewer attractions than we think it will be allowed to possess.

To this poem are subjoined five smaller pieces, viz. Asia, an Elegy, written in Marmorice Bay, during the residence of Sir Ralph Abercrombie's Army there in Feb. 1801;—Cintra;—The Leaf;—The Rose;—and The Old Man's Reflections.

The wretched state of society in Asia is feelingly lamented by the author in the Elegy, and contrasted with the happier lot of the inhabitants of the British Isles:

'Ah, country lost to honour, lost to love!
 How vain the spicy gale that fans thy coast;
How vain the myrtles that enrich thy grove,
 Or the warm roses in thy valleys lost.

'Not here at eve the labouring hind retires,
 To share the pleasures of his social cot,
Nor smiling views, beside his little fires,
 The cherish'd partners of his humble lot.

'The little tyrant of a fleeting hour
 Here dwells in gloomy fear, and sullen state;
Here starts, awaken'd from his dream of pow'r,
 To kiss the mandate that awards his fate.

'Yes; though rude storms o'erhang our Northern isles,
Yet Nature wears in them a livelier green;
Pure honour there, and love's domestic smiles,
Congenial spring, to decorate the scene.

'What though thy ivied walls, thy ruin'd towers,
Thy scatter'd hamlets, on the dreary plain,
Might lure young Pity from her classic bowers,
To mourn Oppression's solitary reign;

'Yet here no gleam of worth adorns her song,
No virtue breathes beneath the slumbering clay;
No brighter name, distinguish'd from the throng,
Whose deeds of glory harmonise the lay.

'The fierce defender of a tyrant's cause
Here, restless, seeks awhile a false renown,
Bids Nature hush, and mocks her purest laws,
Then dies, the victim of his master's frown.

'Yet not the awful form, the sinewy frame,
That marks the natives of this Eastern sky,
Was meant to cloke a bosom dead to shame,
Or sink, abash'd, beneath a tyrant's eye.

'Not thus the children of a bleaker clime,
Who feel, in smaller forms, a breast more pure,
Like the firm rock that stands the lapse of time,
More firm from tempests, from attacks more sure.

'Ah, happier climes! if erst when Honour calls,
Thy free born sons rejoice awhile to roam,
With laurell'd worth they seek thy sacred halls,
And add more lustre to their parent home.'

The composition of Mr. Clifford is sometimes prosaic and feeble, and occasionally defective in its rhymes: but it is generally elegant and harmonious. His numbers flow with ease; and the merit of his poetic delineations may be estimated by the characteristic and well-coloured pictures which they present to the imagination of the reader.

Mr. Clifford's description of Egyptian scenes refers to a later period of our exploits in those distant regions, than the interesting and entertaining narrative of Mr. Willyams, which forms the subject of the first article in this Number of our Review; and the one being clothed in the sober garb of prose, and the other decked in the more sportive attire of the Muse, they will perhaps address themselves to different classes of readers. Still, however, notwithstanding these circumstances, there are points of comparison for the employment of the curious inquirer, and passages in each work that may ilustrate and corroborate the representations of both.

ART. IX. *Brief Commentaries on such Parts of the Revelation, and other Prophecies, as immediately refer to the present Times:* in which the several Allegorical Types and Expressions of those Prophecies are translated into their literal Meanings, and applied to their appropriate Events: Containing a Summary of the Revelation, the Prophetic Histories of the Beast of the Bottomless Pit, the Beast of the Earth, the grand Confederacy, or Babylon the Great, the Man of Sin, the Little Horn, and Antichrist. By Joseph Galloway, Esq. formerly of Philadelphia in America; Author of Letters to a Nobleman, and other Tracts on the late American War. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. boards. Hatchard. 1802.

AMONG the numerous attempts which have been made, from an early to the present period of the Church, to unfold and apply the prophecies which are supposed to lie concealed in the Revelations of St. John, Mr. Galloway comes forwards with "full assurance of faith," under the decided conviction that he has discovered the true exposition, and the key which enables him to unlock its treasures to the world. Here, however, we must beg leave to observe that, if an author, following the sage advice of Lord Bacon, would sit down "with wisdom, sobriety, and reverence," to interpret the prophetic parts of scripture, he ought to be first assured of his strength, "*quid valeant humeri, quid ferre recusent*;" and impartially inquire whether he be furnished with those ample materials, and with that knowlege of antiquities, Oriental languages, customs, &c. which can alone render him equal to this arduous task.

Perhaps many wars and many revolutions will arise, to which these supposed prophesies will be fully as applicable as they are, in the opinion of Mr. Galloway, to the present state of France. How often have these mysterious chapters been applied already in former days to the events then occurring; and how often, perhaps, will they have a similar application assigned to them in times to come? The most learned writers on this subject, who have not rejected this composition as spurious, have yet, in general, (we except Sir Isaac Newton,) considered it as a prophetic description of awful events long since impending over the Jews, and which were to "come to pass shortly."—Why should we hastily depart from their interpretation? Peace, however, is at length happily restored to France; and we will indulge the pleasing hope that she will now cease to be the object of hostilities, either from the powers of this world or the powers of darkness; and that she will no longer furnish occasion, by her internal disorders, of being taught out of holy writ the prophetic record of her sins.

It is well known that some of the early fathers were much inclined to doubt the authority of the book of Revelations; and that others altogether rejected it. The style, so different from the rest of St. John's writings, and other circumstances, led them to form this unfavourable conclusion.—In the middle ages, it met with a more welcome reception. Then people began to apply these prophesies to their own times; to discover the wrath of God revealed against their adversaries; and to console themselves amid the troubles which surrounded them, by beholding the "signs of the times" depicted in this book. From that period to the present, numbers of expositors have arisen, to each of whom these prophesies have appeared peculiarly applicable to the *existing* state of things, and then acting on their enthusiastic minds with a present impetus. If, indeed, the book of Revelations may justly be allowed to contain something more than wild and beautiful imagery, drawn from an acquaintance with the poetical parts of the old Testament, and from the Jewish compositions; yet we do not see, to speak soberly, that we are furnished with sufficient knowlege to enable us to make a particular application of the prophesies which are here contained.

From the statement which we have thus made, our readers will perceive that it would be a fruitless task in us to enter into a minute examination of Mr. Galloway's commentaries. We must first ask him the question of incredulity, and with far better pretensions than the Jews,—"*what sign shewest thou?*" Surely it is fair to inquire what credentials the author brings, to convince us that he has the gift of explaining dark sayings and strange delineations. He *may* be the only true interpreter: but it appears to us to require a *second revelation,* to convince the unbelieving world which particular exposition, out of such an abundance, is alone to be admitted as genuine.—We shall now proceed, however, to give our readers some brief account of the work itself.

The volume consits of six chapters; the first of which exhibits a summary of the prominent events contained in the Apocalypse.—The following quotation will give an idea of the author's plan:

> 'Before I proceed to the awful task I have undertaken in the title-page, it seems not improper to lay before the reader a *summary view* of the contents of the Apocalypse. It will disclose to him a series of wonderful events, foretold in the first century, and which have come to pass since that time, during the course of one thousand seven hundred years; and in the exact *chronological* order in which they were foretold. It will enable him to judge of the unity, the sublimity, and excellence of this sacred record of the providence of God, and convince him that no power, save a God of infinite wisdom, can be the Author of it. It will, moreover, assist him in his judgment

upon the propriety of my explication of the marks and signs contained in it, which refer to the *present times*, and upon my application of them to their proper events.'

Having made some observations on the miraculous success of the church of Christ, as foretold in the Revelations, Mr. Galloway attributes the relapse of Christians into their former state of "discord, war, and blood," to their want of moral rectitude and their distortions of the word of God. Thence he goes on to consider how far he may refer the prophetic description of the last days to the present time.

Chapters 2. and 3. contain the author's application of the prophetic history to the state of the western church, and an account of "the beast of the bottomless pit." This *beast*, it appears, is France, Revolutionary France,—'the Beast of the Earth.'

Here, having glanced at the atheism of those principal authors of the French Encyclopædia, Voltaire, D'Alembert, and Diderot, the author applies to the massacres of the French Revolution, the following passage—"*And they shall have power over waters to turn them into blood.*"

'With what wonderful accuracy has the text, in this sense, been likewise fulfilled, not only in France, but elsewhere! Have we not seen the "peoples and multitudes," the inhabitants of Vendée and Toulouse, and others of that devoted country, at variance with the government, and its abettors; and with more than savage rage assassinating and massacreing one another, giving no quarter, till both land and "waters" have been covered with blood? Yet more, have we not seen the horrid darkness of French anarchy and atheism, overwhelming the different "nations and tongues" in Europe, uniting and compelling them into rebellions, revolutions, and wars, the most cruel and sanguinary; by which millions have been destroyed, and their countries deluged in blood?'

The Seven Vials, an account of which forms a second part of the 3d chapter, are thus briefly explained:

'Under the "first vial of the wrath of God," he foretels the judgments that should be poured out on *revolutionary France;* under the second vial, on *Papal Rome;* under the third, upon *Papal Germany;* under the fourth, upon the king and people of *France;* under the fifth, upon the *republic* and *people* of France, in her *atheistical* state; and under the sixth, upon the *Othman empire*, or Mohammedan apostasy. After this we read no more of the powers of Paganism, Mohammedanism, Papacy, or Atheism, acting in their *separate* capacities, and of their distinct operations against the church of Christ; but, on the contrary, we find that the prophet, under the "seventh vial," begins the history of a new future power, and *grand confederacy. of all of them together*, for the purpose of the utter destruction of the truth, and the word of God.'

Chapter 4th treats of "the Man of Sin, the Son of Perdition," as mentioned in St. Paul, 2 Thess. chap. 2.

'But where shall we find him? The wisdom of all the sages and lawgivers of antiquity, as well as of modern times, have seen the reasonableness and necessity of forming their codes of civil polity upon religion and morality; and these have been derived from a belief in one supreme God, the creator of all things, and in a future state of rewards and punishments. None of them were ever under such delusion and blindness, as to reject the demonstrations of nature, and the irresistible evidence arising from the universal harmony and fitness of things. In vain shall we search, in the past ages of the world, for this monstrous and sinful Power. But we cannot look for it among the present Powers of Europe, without seeing *The Republic of France*, in all her conduct, not only acting up to it in its fullest extent, but excelling, and without shame or remorse, glorying in this very character, and showing herself the only and *exact prototype* of the "Man of Sin."'

Chapter 5th remarks on "the Little Horn," as described in the 7th chapter of Daniel. After several observations on what the little Horn could *not* signify, and on the mistakes of former commentatots, the author here asks the following questions:

'Let me then ask, where we shall find a Power, which so perfectly answers to this explanation of the "Little Horn;" a power so *worthless*, so wicked and abandoned, so lost to all that is virtuous and good, so *avowedly* impious in *principle*, and of course so LITTLE in the sight, and so low in the favour of God, as the *revolutionary power* of France?'

The 6th and last chapter treats on "Antichrist," mentioned in the epistles of St. John. Having observed that neither the Pagan powers nor the Mohammedan, nor the power of the Pope, can be here denoted, Mr. Galloway concludes:

'We must then look for "Antichrist" in the *present times*, and if we do not find him here, confess that he is not come. But can it be possible for any serious mind to take a view of the immoral and impious principles and the hostile conduct of the revolutionary Republic of France, against all that has had the least appearance of Christianity, and not to see "Antichrist" here described, standing in the most glaring light before him?'

We have now hastily conducted our readers through the several parts of this work, and given them a glimpse of the light which shines within it. We confess, for ourselves, that we are so *unreasonable* as to require *reasons* for these prophetic applications, and that therefore Mr. Galloway has not been successful in producing any conviction on our minds: but that, notwithstanding all that has been said, we still remain with the Egyptians behind the *Cloudy Pillar*.

Art. X. *Observations on the Winds and Monsoons;* illustrated with a Chart, and accompanied with Notes, Geographical and Meteorological. By James Capper, formerly Colonel and Comptroller-General of the Army and Fortification Accompts on the Coast of Coromandel. 4to. pp. 260. 15s. Boards. Debrett. 1801.

The subject discussed by Colonel Capper in this volume is not less curious than important. A commercial people must be particularly solicitous of obtaining a minute explanation of all circumstances relative to the phænomena of winds: but, in most places, their variable direction and unequal force will present difficulties which must probably long remain unsolved by the philosopher. The sphere of his observation, indeed, seems unequal to the full examination of the subject; since, though the cause generally producing the effect is easily ascertained, yet its varying and complex operation proceeds on so vast a scale, and is so combined also with the influence of other elements, that he must be puzzled in *laying down the law* of the wind, and in stating the reasons for its incessant changes. There are, however, some regions of the globe in which this powerful element moves with some regularity, and presents us with facts which serve to explain the direction of its currents. To these winds, Colonel Capper's attention has been laudably and skilfully directed; and his observations enlarge the view of the subject, contain much information, and are composed with considerable science.

The theory of the author, however, is the same with that which Bacon laid down, and which Halley has subsequently and more fully maintained. It is simply this:—When the air is rarified by heat, the cold air rushes in and causes a wind.—If the globe were fluid, then winds would tend nearly to the same parts; and the sun continually heating the air at and near the equator, and moving westward, the cold air would rush in from the North and South, and cause North-east and South-east winds. Now place in this ocean an island; then, but from the same cause, *partial* winds will be produced. If, for instance, the soil of the island be more heated than the circumambient water, the current of air will be from the water to the land; or, to speak technically, a sea-breeze will be excited; and if, on the contrary, the air over the water be more heated than the air over the land, a land-breeze will be produced.

These principles are clear, and their general operation may be adequately and easily conceived: but there is a wide difference between the mere conception of a theory, and its application to the solution of natural phænomena; between the simple fact of cold dense air pushing rare and heated air out of its place, and the explication of the several currents of air, or winds, as dependent on local circumstances. To the latter point, Colonel Capper's researches particularly refer. A long residence in India, multiplied observations, considerable reading, and mature reflexion, have contributed to aid him in his undertaking; and he has accomplished it, as we have already said, ably and judiciously. We have to complain, however, that the book is in want of arrangement, of connexion, and of a precise statement of the author's theory. We must confess that these deficiencies sometimes occasioned a momentary drowsiness, and the absence of that intimate co-operation with the writer, if we may so express ourselves, which every reader of a scientific work ought to exert. Yet this volume is far from being incapable of producing amusement as well as affording instruction; and the following accounts of hurricanes are interesting not solely from the nature of the subject:

'The next hurricane in succession to that of 1760-61, was in 1763. On the 20th of October in that year, many days after the N. E. monsoon had apparently commenced, the wind began to slacken, and the clouds in the evening appeared uncommonly red, particularly on the day preceding the hurricane. On the morning of the 21st a strong wind blew off the land, and in the course of a few hours flew all round the compass. At this time the Norfolk man of war, Admiral Cornish, with the America and Weymouth, and the Royal Charlotte country ship of four hundred tons, remained in Madras roads, with several other country vessels. The wind began to blow from the N. W. and continued from that quarter for three or four hours, of which time the men of war availed themselves to put to sea, but it then suddenly changed to the eastward, and prevented most of the country ships from following their example. After having blown with incessant violence for fourteen hours, and with almost equal strength from every point of the compass, it at length ceased, but literally left only wrecks behind. All the vessels at an anchor were lost, and almost every person on board perished; but the men of war and the Royal Charlotte returned into the roads on the 24th. The former had felt the gale very severely whilst near the coast, but without sustaining any material injury; the latter vessel likewise, from staying rather too long at anchor, had lost her fore and main masts, and was otherwise much damaged.

'The last of these hurricanes on the coast of Coromandel, which it seems necessary to mention, is that which happened on the 29th of October, 1768. Of this sufficient notice was given, but the officers of the Chatham Indiaman, then in the road, did not avail themselves of it; for on the preceding evening the sea was violently agitated, the sun set in a haze deeply tinged with red, with every other prognostic of a gale of wind. But unfortunately there had been a misunderstanding between the captain and officers, and the former being on shore, the latter, probably waiting for orders, remained at anchor, notwithstanding they might have put to sea with the N. W. wind, which, as usual at the commencement of these hurricanes, blew off the land. The governor and council, who foresaw the danger even time enough to have prevented the loss of the ship, ordered signal guns to be fired with shot, by way of directing the officers to weigh anchor and stand out to sea; but either they did not hear the guns, or were too punctilious in waiting for orders, and in consequence of this inflexibility were lost, for the ship was never seen or heard of after the close of the evening of the 29th. It is possible they were not able to distinguish the signal guns, for many of the inhabitants of the fort, during the violence of the hurricane, did not hear them, and the flashes of the guns might be mistaken by the officers of the ship for those of lightning. The vessels, lying at this time at a single anchor in the open road of Pondicherry, were not in the least disturbed by this hurricane; neither were the effects of it in the smallest degree felt at any of our settlements to the northward. Ships which put to sea in due time very soon get beyond their influence to the eastward, and it is very well known that they never extend far in-land. All these circumstances properly considered, clearly manifest the nature of these winds, or rather positively prove them to be whirlwinds, whose diameter cannot be more than 120 miles, and the vortex seems generally near Madras or Pulicat, where a branch of the Ballagat Mountains extends towards the sea. Those which happen in the N. E. monsoon generally fall with most violence within a few leagues of this place, and never, I believe, reach to the S. of Porto Novo.'

From these and other similar occurrences, the Colonel makes the following conclusions:

'It seems very clear, that hurricanes never happen at the breaking up of the monsoons, nor precisely at their commencement, but rather some time after the change, and that they are local and of short duration. But this description of them is not confined to the Malabar coast, nor to that of Coromandel, they rage with equal if not superior violence in the southern hemisphere, particularly about the latitude of 20 degrees S. near the French Islands, where many ships have been in great danger of perishing from their effects, amongst the rest the Ilchester Indiaman, in the year 1757. But the most accurate and authentic account, which I have received of hurricanes in these latitudes, was that of the hurricane which the Britannia Indiaman encountered in the year 1770. On the 10th of March, about midnight, the wind suddenly burst upon the ship from the S. E. and blew with considerable force, but shifted all round the compass in the course of a few hours. Between five and six in the morning a sudden gust carried away their topmasts and gib boom, when lying to under a balanced mizen; and nearly about the same instant the jolly boat, hanging over the side by the mizen chains, was suddenly whirled up into the mizen shrouds, whence it fell into the sea, and was dashed in pieces. The wind having blown nearly with equal strength from opposite quarters, prevented the sea from rising, so that at the end of ten hours, when it subsided, the sea bore but very little appearance of having been violently agitated.

'The following day, the rigging being repaired, they proceeded a few leagues to the westward, and met a French vessel that had not felt the hurricane; they were likewise overtaken by another ship which had followed the same track as the Britannia without suffering the least inconvenience from it. These circumstsnces prove positively, that in an east and west direction, this hurricane had not extended above 30 leagues, and likewise that the ship was nearly in its centre.

'Thus then it appears that these tempests or hurricanes are tornadoes, or local whirlwinds, and are felt with at least equal violence on the sea coast, and at some little distance out at sea. But there is a material difference in the situation of the sun when they appear at different places. On the coast of Coromandel, for example, they seldom happen, particularly to the northward, except when the sun is in the opposite hemisphere. On the Malabar coast they rage with most violence during the monsoon, whilst the sun is almost vertical. Near the island of Mauritius they are felt in January, February, and March, which may be deemed their summer months. And in the West Indies, according to Mr. Edwards's History of Jamaica, the hurricane season begins in August and ends in October.

'As they happen, then, in different places at different seasons, they cannot well be ascribed, like the monsoons, to any particular situation of the sun in the ecliptic; neither, as they do not happen regularly every year, can they be deemed periodical. But as during their continuance the wind blows all round the compass, and nevertheless is not felt in any direction at a distance of more than sixty or eighty miles, we may venture to conclude that whirlwinds are solely owing to violent and sudden changes, both in the upper and lower regions of the air. When the lower regions of the atmosphere are from any cause considerably rarefied, and the air in those of the upper at the same time becomes very much condensed, according to the principle of gravity, the air in the upper regions will descend, and necessarily cause a whirlwind, perfectly similar to that produced by sinking a heavy body in water; the parts adjacent will immediately concentre to a point, and rush with a whirling circular motion towards the bottom with great violence.'—

'Another extraordinary circumstance respecting these hurricanes should likewise be mentioned, as tending to a discovery of their causes; that they most frequently, it might perhaps with propriety be said always, occur near large bodies of land, but are not known at sea within the tropics, at least in that part of the ocean remote from the continent, or even at a considerable distance from extensive islands. It is a well known fact, as the name itself implies, that the Pacific Ocean is exempt from tempests. So likewise is the middle of the South Atlantic Ocean, particularly from the equator to the latitude of 16 degrees. A violent gale of wind, for instance, was never known at the little island of St. Helena, which lies at the distance of nearly a thousand miles from the west coast of Africa, and still further from the eastern coast of America. The mean tempera-

ture

ture of St. Helena is, I believe, 72 degrees instead of 79, which is the mean temperature of places on the continent, in the same parallels of latitude: but the variations there throughout the year, both of the thermometer and barometer, are very trifling. It must here be again remembered, that the vapours raised from the ocean have a larger portion of both common and electrical fire, and are, therefore, more firmly supported in the form of clouds than those which come from the land; that in these oceans an equal temperature almost constantly prevails, and that all the circumambient air is filled with homogeneous vapours. In every wide expanse of ocean, therefore, unbroken by a continent or extensive island, no sudden changes are likely to take place in the atmosphere; but, on the contrary, where the clouds, which are formed by exhalations from extensive bodies of land, approach those which are derived from the ocean, violent and sudden alterations must necessarily occur; for, as it has been frequently before remarked, the land clouds will attract both common and electrical fire from those clouds, which come from the ocean, until the equilibrium is restored; and during this operation such changes must necessarily happen in the atmosphere, as will produce strong currents of air, and in general whirlwinds. Near every part of the continent of Asia, in the Gulf of Bengal, on either coast of Africa near the island of Madagascar, and even in the vicinity of the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, where also there are volcanoes, whirlwinds occasioned by sudden changes in the atmosphere will, at certain seasons, frequently occur. But in the Pacific Ocean, and in the central parts of the North and South Atlantic, they will seldom happen. Ships in crossing the North Atlantic scarcely ever meet with hard gales of wind before they approach the Western Islands, where likewise there are volcanoes. But in the islands of Bermudas, which are situated in the North Atlantic Ocean, about the latitude of 32 degrees N. and at the distance of six hundred miles from the coast of America, hurricanes, I believe, are almost unknown, but thunder and lightning, with temporary gusts of wind, or violent squalls, are very common. Were these islands of less extent, or had they been placed within the tropic, it is probable they would have been as exempt even from tempests as St. Helena, or the islands in the Pacific Ocean; but situated in the temperate zone, and not very remote from America, they are subject occasionally to sudden and violent gusts from the N. W. which probably originate on that continent. The Bermudas, however, enjoy a delightful climate, not unlike the finest weather of an European spring, or the early part of summer; whence, probably, they derive their name of the Summer Islands.'

In order to prevent confusion, the author makes an alteration in the names of seas, gulfs, &c.; or, more properly speaking, fixes by definition the particular seas, gulfs, &c. which he understands by the names here assigned to them. He likewise forms a new distribution of the winds, viz. into the perennial, the periodical, the topical, and the general. It is, however, remarkable that, after having quoted two erroneous definitions of monsoons, and stated the necessity of distinguishing between the trade wind and the monsoon, the Colonel does not inform us precisely what the latter wind is. Neither do his remarks concerning the common and electrical fire residing in clouds, &c. altogether please us: his expressions are indistinct and loose; and we suspect that they refer not to any just and philosophical theory.

The notes to this volume are very copious and very valuable: the slight deviations from the strictness of philosophy are compensated by the regular predominancy of good sense: if the matter be sometimes irrelevant, it is almost always curious; and the digressions are to be pardoned for the pleasures of variety to which they lead. We may be allowed to leave a while the straight road, when there is no danger of being lost in the mazes of error.—From these notes, we shall make a quotation which respects, not the Asiatic continent, but our own country, and which contains *General Meteorological Observations made in England*:

> 'Those who are furnished with proper instruments, and who carefully observe the information they afford, will not often be mistaken in their judgment of the changes of the weather. The barometer, the thermometer, the hygrometer, and the electrometer, will generally give us timely notice of any material changes in the state of the atmosphere. But before we consider the best, or at least the usual modes of employing these instruments, we will beg leave to mention some common remarks of the peasantry, whose professions requiring them to live much in the open air, their opinions merit very great attention, being the result of local observation, continued from father to son, and verified from the experience of many ages. Amongst the first of these is one, now established into a proverb, that a rainbow in the morning is the shepherd's warning, but the rainbow at night is the shepherd's delight.
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> 'In a country with the sea or ocean to the westward, and the wind from the same quarter, this opinion is likely to be true; for at least nine-tenths of the rain in a country so situated would come from that side. If, therefore, the clouds to the westward in the morning are saturated with moisture, which they must be to produce a rainbow, as these clouds proceed from the W. towards the E. they probably will produce rain; whereas, on the contrary, when the sun sets perfectly clear, and the clouds to the eastward are moist, it is a proof that the wet clouds are past, with a westerly wind, and the shepherd therefore may reasonably expect fine weather on the following day.
>
> 'When it rains with an east wind, it probably will rain for twenty-four hours. This is another observation, which seems to me applicable to countries situated, as above mentioned, with land to the eastward; for in general the weather is dry in these countries with an east wind, but when the cohesion of the air and water is broken, the rain will not be violent, but of long duration.

'The weather generally clears at noon, but when it rains at mid-day, it seldom clears up again till sun set. The air, when dry and warm, continues to absorb and retain the moisture continually evaporated from the earth; as therefore the sun advances towards the meridian, and for an hour or two afterwards, he dries and warms the air, and consequently the rain is likely to cease at that time. But if there should be so much water in solution in the atmosphere, that the heat of the sun is not sufficient to produce these effects, in that case the rain will probably continue some hours longer.

'Violent winds generally abate towards sun-set.

'If we admit that wind is only a current of air put in motion by the rarefaction of the atmosphere in some particular place, and that this current of air is moving towards the point of rarefaction to restore the equilibrium, we must suppose, that as the Sun declines the rarefaction will diminish, and consequently the velocity of the wind decrease. But this observation, in my opinion, rather applies to the temperate than to the torrid zone; for in whirlwinds and hurricanes the contrary may very often occur.

'When the wind follows the course of the sun, it is generally attended with fair weather. This frequent and regular change of wind, which is never more than a moderate breeze, proves that there is no point of considerable rarefaction near, and, therefore, the current of air follows immediately the Sun's course: it always happens in summer, but very seldom when the sun's meridian altitude is less than 40 degrees.

'The changes which take place in the atmosphere are principally marked by the rising and falling of the barometer, which apparently is caused by heat and cold, the hands with which nature performs her meteorological operations: by the former the atmosphere is rarefied, and consequently becomes light; by the latter it is condensed, and consequently becomes heavy. Hence probably the old remark, that a storm generally follows a calm; for during a calm the air is rarefied and expanded, and the cold air will rush forward in a strong current to restore the equilibrium, and necessarily produce what is generally called a gale of wind, the violence of which also will of course be in proportion to the degree of the preceding rarefaction.

'For these reasons, the barometer falls suddenly whilst the air is expanded before a gale of wind, and rises again gradually as the condensed air returns, and the gale in like manner by degrees subsides.

'It must however be observed, that an extraordinary fall of the mercury will sometimes take place in summer, previous to heavy showers of rain, particularly if attended with thunder and lightning; but in spring, autumn, and winter, the sudden extraordinary descent of the barometer indicates principally violent wind.

'Upon these principles likewise we may account for the rise and fall of the barometer in the different zones. In the torrid zone, particularly at St Helena and the islands of the Pacific Ocean, it seldom varies more than three tenths; at Madras about five-tenths; in the south of Europe not more than one inch and two-tenths; in Eng- it varies two inches and a half, and in Petersburgh three inches four-tenths. In the two first the temperature of the atmosphere is not subject to much variation, and never to any great degree of condensation. In the third, reckoning from the tropics to the latitude of 40, the atmosphere may sometimes be suddenly condensed by currents of cold air from the N. and still more so in England. But the greatest variation must necessarily take place on the continent to the northward, where, during the summer, the weather is as hot as within the tropics; and, in winter, the thermometer, for many weeks, continues several degrees below the freezing point.

'The thermometer also, which measures the degree of heat in the air near the earth, will contribute towards denoting when changes are likely to take place in the lower regions of the atmosphere; the hygrometer distinguishes the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere, and the electrometer will point out the quantity of electricity which prevails in it.

'The words generally engraven on the plates of the barometer rather serve to mislead than to inform, for the changes of the weather depend rather on the rising and falling of the mercury, than on its standing at any particular height. When the mercury is as high as Fair, or at 30 degrees, and the surface of it is concave, beginning to descend, it very often rains; and on the contrary, when even the mercury is at 29 degrees, opposite to rain, when the surface of it is convex, beginning to rise, fair weather may be expected. These circumstances not being known, or not duly attended to, is the principal cause that farmers and others have not a proper confidence in this instrument.

'It must also be observed, that, *cæteris paribus*, the mercury is higher in cold than in warm weather, and commonly early in the morning, or late in the evening, than at noon, which seems occasioned by the obvious causes of the atmosphere being condensed by the cold of the night, and rarefied by the heat of the day.

'The following observations of Mr. Patrick seem confirmed by experience.

'1. The rising of the mercury presages, in general, fair weather, and its falling foul weather, as rain, snow, high winds, and storms.

'2. In very hot weather the fall of the mercury indicates thunder.

'3. In winter the rising presages frost; and in frosty weather, if the mercury falls three or four divisions, there will certainly follow a thaw; but in a continued frost, if the mercury rises, it will certainly snow.

'When foul weather happens soon after the falling of the mercury, expect but little of it, and, on the contrary, expect but little fair weather when it proves fair shortly after the mercury has risen.

'5. In foul weather, when the mercury rises much and high, and so continues for two or three days before the foul weather is quite over, then expect a continuance of fair weather to follow.

'6. In fair weather, when the mercury falls much and low, and thus continues for two or three days before the rain comes, then expect a great deal of wet, and probably high winds.

'7. The unsettled motion of the mercury denotes uncertain and changeable weather.

'But to these remarks may be added, that, when the barometer suddenly falls two or three-tenths, without any material alteration in the thermometer, and the hygrometer is not much turned towards moist, a violent gale of wind may be expected. When the hygrometer inclines far towards moist, with only a trifling descent in the barometer, it denotes a passing shower and little wind; and when the barometer falls considerably, and the hygrometer turns much towards moist, the thermometer remaining sationary, and rather inclined to rise than fall, both violent wind and rain are likely to follow in the course of a few hours.'

The reader may find the hints contained in the above extract very useful, since they may suggest when he ought and when he ought not to incumber himself with a great coat.

Art. XI. *The True Lover of his Country;* or a Treatise on Sovereignty, with respect to its Origin, its Object, its Functions, and its several Modifications; with a concise Description of the Revolutions of the Roman Republic, of the Kingdom of England, and more particularly that of France. By M. Clemence. 12mo. Dulau and Co. &c. London.

Revolutions in politics, like reformations in religion, excite the most ample and spirited discussions The old system, however reprobated and rejected by the majority, is sure of finding some staunch advocates, who will endeavour to counteract the decisions of the sword by the efforts of the pen; and to compensate for the want of success by the energy, if not by the excellence, of their argument. Of this number is M. Clemence; who apprehends that, though for the present " the field be lost, all is not lost;" that, though France has banished the monarch and declared against monarchy, her conduct is not to be justified in the eye of reason; and 'that the true lover of his country must wish for the return of the antient system, in preference to republicanism in any shape.'

The author's object is laboured with great address. The proposition which he is desirous of establishing, in favour of monarchy, is made to result from a series of preceding propositions; and if he seems to decide for the *divine right*, it is done in such a manner as to create the least possible disgust. He first demonstrates that man is an animal born to live in society; then, that all men are born more or less unequal; and hence he proceeds to establish the necessity for a sovereign authority, and to consider its legitimate source. Here, after having defined sovereign authority to be 'a power of making laws, and of punishing those who have the temerity to infringe or break them;' and having premised that the Deity alone is the primitive source of all authority; he ingeniously infers that the right of one or many to govern arises from the order of his providence, and that he gives masters to nations as ministers of his justice and mercy. In the Chapter on the origin of Civil Societies, he inclines to the Filmerian hypothesis; and in the following, on the Hereditary Right of Lands and of Crowns, he contends that the right of the latter case is established on the same principle as that of the former. With this argument, the doctrine of the next chapter is completely in unison: viz. ‘Revolt is never permitted;’ and he thus reasons on this subject: ‘The first of all laws is, that particular interests should give way to the general interest. An injustice committed by the sovereign is a particular and temporary evil; resistance to authority, and rebellion, are general and permanent evils, because they attack public order, on which depends the safety of all.’—It may be observed, by the advocates for resistance against tyrannical oppression, that neither of these asertions is true. We shall not however stop to comment here, but proceed to the author's chapter intitled *the Limits of Sovereign Authority*; from which we shall make an extract that will completely develope his principles:

‘A prince who exceeds his authority, does not lose it; and hence it is not permitted for the people to arm themselves against him. Subjects have not the right of declaring war against their sovereign, who alone can dispose of the public force. They must therefore confine themselves to negative resistance; they must, in refusing to concur in the execution of illegal orders, preserve the habit of submission in every thing which is not evidently contrary to the constitution of the state; for, in doubtful cases, he who is in possession of authority ought also to have the presumption in his favour. We must not forget, that the prince is the father of his people; and we, as dutiful sons, should not suffer ourselves to resist with open force the unjust will of a father. After having employed prayers, remonstrances, and protestations, there is nothing left to subjects, but to wait the redress of the wrongs of which they complain, either from the prince being better counselled, or from his successor.

‘But if the prince employs the public force only to oppress the people, if he arbitrarily disposes of estates, honours, and the lives of citizens, if, in a word, he governs like a tyrant, is it necessary to keep within the bounds of a mere negative resistance? will it not be permitted, in case of a lawful defence, to oppose force to force, and to overthrow an authority, the abuse of which would be so manifest and intolerable?

‘Happily, in Europe, and in all modern governments, there are neither Caligulas or Neros. The maxims of a religion which only breathes mildness and humanity, the general spirit and public manners, the political and commercial relations of different states, the distinctions and acknowledged rights of the different orders of society, oppose an insurmountable barrier to that overflow of tyranny. Principles are not made for cases that we cannot foresee. But if it happen,

pen, that God, in his anger, places upon the throne such a monster, then I will say with Narbal in Telemachus, where he speaks of Pygmalion, whom history represents as the most execrable tyrant, "For myself, I fear the gods, whatever misfortunes they may send to try me, I will be faithful to the prince whom they have placed over me; I had rather he would take away my life, than I should attempt his, or be backward in defending him." There also remains a remedy more lawful and less dangerous than revolt, which is, to give to that weak or furious prince a tutor who should govern in his name. This measure would assure the public tranquillity, and preserve the respect due to royalty. The law, which in hereditary monarchies, names a regent for the minor king, is applicable in all cases, when a sovereign shews himself incapable of governing.'

Fortunately for us, we have established a different doctrine in Great Britain, from that which maintains that there is nothing left to subjects but to submit with prayers and tears to their oppressors. It would be as absurd to make a law for revolt, (since, as Blackstone observes, "no human law will suppose a case which must destroy all law,") as it would be impolitic and wicked to scatter the seeds of disaffection to established authority among the people. It is a wise maxim of our constitution, that *the King can do no wrong;* for we cannot contemplate him as doing wrong without supposing the annihilation of law, or a state of anarchy. When, however, a nation is thrown into a state of anarchy, the *necessity of the case*, as Blackstone farther remarks, supersedes all law; and leaves to the people an undoubted right to interfere for the restoration of order. Should the throne become vacant, the people must of necessity redress themselves. Since, however, cases of this nature are extremely rare, they need not be brought into discussion: but, when despotic and slavish principles are maintained, the subjects of free governments will justify their conduct and assert their rights.

The chapter on the different parts of Sovereignty, and their extent, is concluded with a consolation to those who are oppressed with slavery, similar to that which Mr. Burke administered to those who were afflicted with poverty:

'To preserve in every state good order, and that harmony which is necessary to their reciprocal welfare, men must submit to men, weak like themselves, and, like them, subject to error. It is impossible to discover any single form of government that is not liable to many inconveniences. In endeavouring to avoid the dreadful evils
hy, we sometimes run a risk of falling into slavery. By
thout government, we become ferocious and savage: and
of humanity, but the admirable wisdom of Providence,
ves us here below but for a few moments, will shortly
from this transitory life, and grant us another which will
never

never have an end, where man will be no longer in subjection to man, governed only by sovereign goodness.'

The general object of this treatise is to display the advantages of pure monarchy, and to shew how dangerous it is to suffer the people to possess authority: in the prosecution of which design, the author appeals to the annals of Rome, of England, and of France. Reviewing history for this express purpose, the intelligent reader will anticipate the nature of M. Clemence's comments on the records of our own country. What will the high-spirited Commons of Great Brititain say to the following account which he gives of them? 'To this day, when the King of England judges it proper to call his Parliament, he commands the Lords to assemble themselves to give him their advice; and he orders the Commons to hold themselves ready to submit to what will be determined by him and his Lords.' Where did M. Clemence make this curious discovery?

The observations on the history of the French revolution conclude with a hint to Bonaparte; which, though formed with art, will probably be unsuccessful:

> 'Torn to pieces at home, surrounded by enemies abroad, France was like a vessel beaten about by the tempest which is sported with by the winds and waves whilst waiting for a skilful pilot to come and save it from inevitable shipwreck. Happy, a thousand times happy would it be, if he who now holds the helm would, for the happiness of France and tranquillity of Europe, place it in the hands of its true and legitimate master, who might, by his wisdom and prudence, put an end to the dreadful misfortunes of anarchy, and restore repose to a country filled with affliction and mourning!'

In order that this work may at once be read by both nations, it is printed in alternate pages of French and English.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1802.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 12. *A Sketch of the Life and Character of Lord Kenyon,* late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Spragg. 1802.

THE distinguished person, who is the subject of this sketch, was raised to the Chief Justiceship of England in the year 1788, and retained that elevated station till the time of his death; which event happened at Bath on the 2d of April 1802. The character here delineated is faithful in the outline, but by no means finished in that style of excellence which we could have wished, and which the original merited. The features are exact; and, if we required nothing but resemblance in a portrait, we should be satisfied on this occasion: but the light and shade are ill managed, and the colouring is deplorable. To speak without a metaphor, the ideas introduced into this pamphlet are natural and just, the sentiments reflect credit on the writer, and both the praise and the censure bestowed on Lord Kenyon are appropriate: but the language is inelegant, and the structure of the sentences is extremely objectionable.

With the following passage, however, we were much pleased, and to the truth of the remark we entirely accede:

'Other Chief Justices may have been profounder scholars; the decisions of justice may have been adorned with more graces of eloquence, and more luminous variety of illustrations; others have been more distinguished as political characters, but I believe there never lived a Lord Chief Justice, who more completely possessed and deserved the confidence of the public. Implicit confidence is more than is due to any man; but confidence in moral worth, in sterling integrity, in tried abilities, and sincere regard to religion, was what Lord Kenyon eminently enjoyed. The nation at large were more than satisfied with him; they reposed in him with a filial confidence that the great interests of morality, property, reputation, and marriage were safe where Lord Kenyon presided. Lord Kenyon was one of those truly great minds, which are superior to all affectation, even the affectation of knowledge. If he was ignorant, or but slightly informed on any subject which came before him, he never had the littleness to pretend to know it. He was always very desirous of receiving the assistance of those who, from their peculiar profession, employment, or situation, were likely to be better informed than himself; and thus on the ground of adequate knowledge to do substantial justice.'

Of this modest and unpretending disposition, we once heard a singular instance from one of the party. The subject of Mr. Wilkes's edition of Theophrastus was introduced; and Lord Kenyon observed that Mr. Wilkes had obligingly sent him a copy, but, as the work was printed without a Latin translation, it had imposed on him the necessity of purchasing another edition, because he was unable to read it without such assistance.—In addition to his other great qualities, Lord Kenyon possessed a tenderness of nature and a simplicity of manners which have been rarely equalled: while his integrity as a Judge was incorruptible, and was never influenced by any considerations of the rank or dignity of the persons who came before him.—To do justice, strict impartial justice, was his object and his effort;

" ———*Cui pudor, et justitiæ soror*
Incorrupta fides, nudaque veritas."

We shall close this short article with a character of his Lordship which appeared soon after his promotion to the Bench. "Lord Kenyon may not equal in talents or eloquence the prominent character whom he succeeds on the Bench of Justice; nevertheless he possesses qualities more appropriate to, and knowledge more connected with, the important office which he holds. Profound in legal erudition, patient in judicial discrimination, and of the most determined integrity, he is formed to add no common lustre to his exalted station. He does not sacrifice his official to his parliamentary character; the sphere of his particular duty is the great scene of his activity, as of his honour; and though as a Lord of Parliament he will never lessen his character, it is as a Judge he looks to aggrandize it." In that hope and that endeavour he greatly succeeded.

Art. 13. *Public Characters,* 1800—1801. 8vo. 9s. Boards. R. Philips.

Art. 14. *Public Characters,* 1801—1802. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips.

Of the two preceding volumes of these biographical notices, we gave some account in the 30th and 32d Volumes of our Review, N. S. We have now only to inform our readers that the work proceeds, according to its first design; that it seems to improve as it advances with time; and that these 3d and 4th Volumes contain a considerable number of memoirs of persons (our contemporaries) who figure in the moral, the political, and the scientific walks of society.

The discussion of living characters, it must be remarked, is a difficult and delicate task; and in the execution of it, the authors of this work may perhaps have acquitted themselves with as much success as may reasonably be expected: but, if the old maxim of *speak not ill of the dead* be observed, can we expect that more than the *bright side* of the *living* shall be exhibited? especially when we consider that so much of the information here given must be derived from the subjects themselves, or from their friends. Prejudice or partiality must, in general, be too dominant in such compositions.

ARTS.

Art. 15. *Essays on Gothic Architecture.* By the Rev. T. Warton, Rev. J. Bentham, Captain Grose, and the Rev. J. Milner (with a Letter to the Publisher.) Illustrated with Twelve Plates of Ornaments, &c. selected from ancient Buildings; calculated to exhibit the various Styles of different Periods. The Second Edition. To which is added, A List of the Cathedrals of England, with their Dimensions: also two new Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor. 1802.

We are not surprized to find that the first edition of these Essays (of which we gave some account in M. R. Vol. xxxiv. p. 88. N. S.) has been favourably received by the public; and we announce this Second Edition as still more intitled to its patronage. The two additional plates, one containing an interior view of Durham Cathedral and the other of Westminster Abbey, are given in order to exhibit and illustrate the different character and effect of the circular and of the pointed styles of antient English Architecture. The list of the Cathedrals of England and Wales, with their admeasurements, including those of Old St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey, is a Supplement; for which Architectural Students and others will feel themselves obliged to Mr. Taylor, since it saves them the trouble of consulting many books, and brings together into one view the real and comparative magnitude of our noblest sacred structures.

The additions are sold separately, price 2s. 6d. to accommodate the purchasers of the First Edition.

EDUCATION.

Art. 16. *Lexicographia-Neologica Gallica.* The Neological French Dictionary; containing Words of new Creation, not to be found in any French and English Vocabulary hitherto published; including those added to the Language by the Revolution, and which now form the Supplemement to the Fifth Edition of the French Academy's Dictionary, printed at Paris in 1798: with the new System of Weights, Measures, and Coins. The Whole forming a Remembrancer of the French Revolution, as comprising a short History of it, and a View of the Republic, with Anecdotes, &c. &c. By William Dupré. 8vo. pp. 311. 7s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips.

To those who have not observed the course of the French Revolution with more than ordinary attention, to younger persons, and to those of the rising generation who may be led to peruse histories of the late great events in France, and the publications of the period, this work will be found an useful and necessary companion. The catalogue, however, needs not have been so large, since many of the terms here explained never procured even a *temporary* general adoption.

In order to give our readers some insight into the nature of the author's design, and into the manner in which it has been executed, we shall make a few extracts:

'ATTACHÉ, s. m. a servant. Mon *attaché* is now generally used in France instead of mon valet de chambre, mon laquais, mon garçon, &c. (Le ministre public de France fit son entrée à Gênes, précédé de deux *attachés*, portant habit de citoyen et la cocarde nationale tricolore au chapeau, &c.—The public minister of France made his entry into Genoa, preceded by two *servants*, dressed in the habit of a citizen having the three-coloured national cockade in his hat, &c.)'

'JACOBIN, s. m. a Jacobin; a name given to the member of a society of the people, established in the year 1789, in the old convent of the Jacobins, Dominicans, or white friars, at Paris. The same name has been given to the societies connected or affiliated with this Paris club; as well as to such individuals, not joining any society, as have professed similar principles.

'The society of *Jacobins* called themselves the friends of liberty and equality; they corresponded with the other clubs, not only in France, but in every country where societies of the like kind were to be found. The number of these clubs in France was not less than twelve hundred, and the whole amount of these societies was thought to be sixty thousand; they formed together a political confederacy, uniting in one point, of a nature the most alarming to the established governments of Europe ever known.'—

'The French *Jacobin* societies, which governed and directed the national convention, many of the deputies to which belonged to the principal club at Paris, proved a most cruel scourge to the people. They were for reducing and levelling all ranks and fortunes to an equality; at length its members being guilty of every enormity under Robespierre, the club fell with him, or rather in consequence of his fall. Robespierre was executed by the guillotine on the 27th of July 1794, now celebrated as a feast under the name of the 9th Thermidor, and the society of *Jacobins* was abolished in November following.

'An address from a section of the city of Paris to the national convention soon after this horrid society was dispered, has the following passage, which shews the detestation in which it was held by the people.—You ought to mark out those men of blood, those devouring vultures, fed with human flesh under the sanguinary government of Robespierre and the *Jacobins*; the club of *Jacobins*, that den of wild beasts in the capital, from whence humanity was driven away as being aristrocratical, and reason as counter-revolutionary.'

'MUSCADIN, s. m. this appellation has taken place of the French words petit maître, adopted by the English, and long used by both nations to denote that effeminate, conceited, selfish being, which we likewise style a fop, or fribble.

'Though this kind of inoffensive animal, which it should seem is found in France of the female gender, does not owe its origin to the revolution, which has certainly produced both men and women of undaunted resolution, unshaken courage, and indefatigable perseverance, it undoubtedly owes its present name to it, which is far more expressive of the qualities and properties of these creatures than the former denomination of petit-maître, and seems derived either from the sweet wine called muscat, that powerful odour, musk, or those delicate words (paroles musquées) which usually issue from their perfumed lips.'

In future times, curiosity will perhaps be much gratified by consulting this record of ephemeral peculiarities; and at the present moment, considerable amusement and information will be afforded by it to a great number of readers.

Art. 17. *Hints on the Education of the Lower Ranks of the People*; and the Appointment of Parochial Schoolmasters. Respectfully submitted to the Proprietors of Land in Great Britain. By George Chapman, LL.D. 12mo. 6d. Muir, Edinburgh; Cadell jun. and Davies, London.

It is confessed by Dr. C. that he 'could never see the wisdom or the humanity of that plan which condemns the lower classes of the people to ignorance:' but he is convinced of the policy of extending towards them the advantages of instruction; and he adduces the example of Scotland, where schoolmasters for the benefit of the poor are appointed by act of parliament in every parish, to prove that, though the common people in this part of Great Britain have thus been better educated than the poor of England, they have not been less but rather more decent, orderly, and obedient.

The depreciation of the value of money having rendered the salaries of the Scotch schoolmasters, as settled by the act passed in the reign of king William, anno 1696, inadequate to their present support, Dr. C. recommends this subject to the consideration of the public;

and he is of opinion that the plan of parochial schools, established by Parliament, should be extended to every part of Great Britain. His scheme combines industry with instruction, and equally consults the virtue of the poor and the comfort of the rich.

Art. 18. *The New Speaker, or English Class Book:* consisting of I. Moral and Instructive Essays. II. Narrative and Pathetic Pieces. III. Dialogues. IV. Orations and Harangues. V. Epistles. VI. Miscellaneous Pieces. VII Select Poetical Varieties. To which are prefixed, a short System of Rhetoric, and an Essay on Enunciation or Delivery, chiefly abstracted from Blair's Lectures. For the Use of Schools. By William Mavor, LL. D. Author of the British Nepos, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 423. 4s. 6d. Boards. Wallis.

Art. 19. *Classical English Poetry*, for the Use of Schools, and Young Persons in general. Selected from the Works of the most favourite of our National Poets, with some original Pieces. Compiled and written by Dr. Mavor and Mr. Pratt. 12mo. pp. 429. 4s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips, &c.

The task undertaken by Dr. Mavor alone in the first of these works, and by him in conjunction with Mr. Pratt in the second, is by no means so easy as it is generally imagined to be. To discharge it properly, the compiler must have an extensive acquaintance with polite literature, be well versed in criticism, and possess correct taste, with a mature judgment. Specimens of what is most perfect should alone be submitted to the attention of youth: but too many pieces, which are undeserving of this character, have been admitted into both these collections, to intitle them to our unreserved commendation. Even the title page of the second work raises unfavourable prepossessions. Had the full force of the term *classical* been familiar to the authors, they would scarcely have applied it to a compilation of which their own compositions make so considerable a part; and the insertion of which they justify on the ground of contrast. The editors here forget the object of their labours; which are designed for young persons, and not to suit the eye of finished judges. Besides, the variety for which they contend is perhaps better attained by collecting together pieces in the various sorts of poetry, than by an assortment of those of widely different merit in the same class.—Typographical correctness is also of the utmost importance in books of this nature; and we are sorry to discover, in the volumes before us, so many instances of inattention to this department.

In the short system of rhetoric, the principles should have been more illustrated by examples; for these, alone, speak plainly to the minds of young persons. Abstract definitions imprint on them no distinct ideas.

If, in a literary view, these volumes are liable to criticism, they are free from all exception in what regards morality and religion; since they contain nothing of an improper, or even of a dubious tendency.

Art. 20. *Historical and Miscellaneous Questions, for the Use of Young People.* 12mo. Printed at Stockport; sold by Longman and Co. London.

Publications of the class of that now before us are well adapted to fix the principal facts of history in the memory of young persons: but, unless they are drawn up with accuracy, they will propagate error in the form of knowlege. This work, though in general useful to tutors and scholars, requires in several places to be corrected. In p. 41. it is said that the word *Punic* was applied to the Carthaginians 'for their shameful breach of faith.' The fact is that *Pæni* and *Punicus* are corruptions of *Phæni*. Phenicians, of which people Carthage was originally a colony *. There are other mistakes which we have not leisure to enumerate.

Art. 21. *The Juvenile Travellers;* containing the Remarks of a Family during a Tour through the principal States and Kingdoms of Europe, with an Account of their Inhabitants, Natural Productions, and Curiosities. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

The travels of the younger Anacharsis may have suggested the idea of this work, which contains a pleasing epitome of the Grand Tour, and may be read with advantage by many grown ladies and gentlemen. Much, however, as we approve the efforts which are now making to instruct the rising generation, we rather doubt the propriety of inviting very young persons to play the part of old Ulysses, by wandering through various states and kingdoms, in order to survey their customs, laws, and institutions. It is evident that the mind must acquire a considerable portion of knowlege, and be ripened to a maturity of judgment, before it can derive any important profit from this species of instruction. Giddy and inexperienced youth are not capable of benefiting much by foreign travel; and the author before us exhibits characters not altogether natural, when she makes children write letters to each other, containing accounts of the manners, &c. of different countries. The work, however, may be considered as a very instructive kind of novel, including a view of the European States and Kingdoms, compiled from Brydone, Coxe, Moore, Radcliffe, Southey, and Thicknesse; and it may be so far of use to young persons, that it may extend their views to other countries than their own, and prevent those inveterate national prejudices which result from ignorance, or from a narrowed and ill-conducted education.

Art. 22. *A Concise English Grammar*, for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. B. Willis. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Mawman.

As far as Etymology and Syntax are concerned, this grammar may be advantageously used in schools: but the author does not appear to have kept that good company which qualifies a man to lecture on Pronunciation. We should be sorry to have our children taught to pronounce diamond as if it were spelt *dimun*, yes, *yis*, business, *busness*, old, *ould*, bolt, *boult*, &c. Such, however, are Mr. Willis's directions; and therefore, while he evinces his intimate knowlege of the grammatical structure of words and sentences, he at the same time discovers his incapacity for instructing the English scholar how to read them with propriety.

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* Hence the word was applied to the Carthaginians long before the Romans accused them of treachery.

CHEMISTRY *and* MINERALOGY.

Art. 23. *Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances.* By Martin Henry Klaproth, &c. &c. &c. Translated from the German. 8vo pp. 591. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

In our 22d vol. N. S. p. 271. and vol. xxv. p. 579, a very full account of this work has been given from the original, and it would therefore be superfluous to enter into a particular view of its contents on its present appearance. We must, however, do the translator the justice to observe, that he appears to have executed his task with judgment and fidelity; and that the book will probably be acceptable and very useful to those chemists who are not acquainted with the German language.

Art. 24. *The New Chemical Nomenclature,* selected from the most distinguished Modern Writers on Chemistry, designed for the Use of Students in Pharmacy, Druggists, Apothecaries, and others. By C. Pye, Chemist. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

This little work will be found useful by chemical students, and the other descriptions of persons mentioned in the title page, for whose assistance it is designed.

Art. 25. *Elements of Chemistry.* By J. Murray, Lecturer on Chemistry, &c. &c. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; and sold by Longman and Rees, London.

The first volume of this publication is divided into two parts, exclusive of the introduction.—In part I. the author treats of Chemical Operations and Instruments, of the Laws of Chemical Affinity, of Caloric (to which he seems to have paid much attention), and of Light, Electricity, and Galvanism. In the second Part, we find the Simple Gases, and afterward their Combinations with each other, considered; and then follow the Inflammable Bodies, together with their binary compounds.

In the second volume, the Metals are enumerated and their Properties described; after which follow the Earths, and some Remarks on the Analysis of Mineral Waters. Part 3. comprehends the Vegetable and Animal Substances. Here, the Formation, Principles, and Changes of Vegetable Bodies are first noticed; and, in a similar order, the whole is concluded by an Investigation of the Origin, Nature, and Decomposition of Animal Matter.

The work is creditable to the author, and will be serviceable to the reader.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *Facts decisive in favour of the Cow-Pock;* including an Account of the Inoculation of the Village of Lowther. By Robert John Thornton, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

A considerable part of this volume is occupied by an Account of Inoculation for the Small-Pox; a practice which, as it could never be rendered universal, Dr. Thornton considers as having proved, on the whole, rather an injury than a benefit to the public. He has also given a short history of Dr. Jenner's great discovery, and a view of the facts on which it is now decisively established. As these have been frequently laid before the public, we shall decline a repetition of them here.

The cases of Inoculation for the Cow-pox, in the village of Lowther, are minutely detailed. They agree, in every respect, with those related by other Vaccine Inoculators, and confirm their experience. Dr. Thornton seems to have been very active and successful in promoting this practice, in the northern part of the kingdom.

Art. 27. *Essays on the Diseases of Children, with Cases and Dissections.* Essay I. Of Cynanche Trachealis, or Croup. By John Cheyne, M. D Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This publication, of which the first number only has yet appeared, is very superbly printed, and illustrated with elegant coloured engravings of the diseased parts implicated in this formidable complaint. The beauty of the work is indeed its chief recommendation; since, although the author has given several cases of the disease, from his own practice, he has added little or nothing to what has been observed by previous writers. He considers the croup as an inflammatory complaint, and treats it on the plan which was formerly called antiphlogistic, before the exile of phlogiston took place. General and topical bleeding, emetics, blisters, purgatives, and warm bathing, are the remedies which he principally recommends. He has used calomel, without success.—With most other practitioners, he conceives that the cases described by Dr. Millar were not instances of genuine croup, but of asthma.—Much evil has arisen indeed, we fear, from confounding these diseases together.

We shall be glad to see this work continued; and it would be well if the present taste for fine books could be always directed to such useful objects as in this instance.

Art. 28. *Engravings of the Arteries,* illustrating the Second Volume of the Anatomy of the Human Body, by J. Bell, Surgeon; and serving as an Introduction to the Surgery of the Arteries. By Charles Bell, Surgeon. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

These elegant and accurate delineations of the arteries must not only facilitate the knowlege of anatomy, but create a taste for it in the most fastidious student. Respecting the difficulty of conveying a just idea of the general structure by drawings, we meet with some very sensible observations in the preface to the present volume:

'I am very averse from the ideas most prevalent regarding anatomical tables, that it is impossible to make a true representation of the parts from any individual body: for as we see, in looking over the variety of anatomical tables, that those which have the characters of the parts distinctly marked, and have been evidently drawn from the parts dissected and laid out before the artist, are in greatest esteem for the accuracy of the anatomy, and best bear the only true test of excellence, the immediate comparison with the subject in the dissecting room; so on the other hand, those made by first drawing the outlines of the parts, and then doing in the vessels, are plans merely in which the character of the parts, and the peculiar course and turnings of the vessels, are lost.

'But I hope I shall not be understood to say, that if a drawing be made accurately from the subject, it will therefore answer all the purposes required. Of twenty bodies, not one perhaps will be found fit for drawing: but still I conceive that we are not to work out a drawing by piecing and adding from notes and preparations; we are to select carefully, from a variety of bodies, that which gives largeness of parts, where the characters of parts are well marked, and where there is the most natural and useful distribution of vessels. In making our drawings of such dissections, let us allow ourselves no licence, but copy accurately. By noting in the description any little deviation, every necessary end is answered.

'By long attention to the subject, I hope that I have been able to make these plates simple, intelligible, and accurate: while the design of this book of plates is to present to the student, at one glance, the general distribution of the vessels, and to fix them in his memory in a way which no description can accomplish, it will be found to give the most usual distribution of the branches; for I have been careful in the selection of my subjects.'

We have seen no work better calculated for giving clear ideas on this important branch of anatomy; and we strongly recommend it to our medical friends, as at once a very useful and a highly ornamental addition to their libraries.

Art. 29. *A Continuation of Facts and Observations relative to the Variolæ Vaccinæ, or Cow Pox,* By Edward Jenner, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. Law, &c. 1800.

We must apologize to our readers, for having accidentally overlooked this sequel to Dr. Jenner's publications on this most important subject. It relates chiefly to those cases of spurious vaccine, which were accompanied with pustular eruptions, and which at one time embarrassed the friends of the new inoculation to a considerable degree. This point is now completely settled.

Dr. Jenner mentions, among the advantages of the Vaccine Inoculation, that it has no tendency to excite scrophulous affections: while the activity of the Small-Pox in giving rise to scrophula is too well known.—We cannot conclude this brief notice better than with the last paragraph of Dr. Jenner's pamphlet:

'The scepticism that appeared even among the most enlightened of medical men, when my sentiments on the important subject of the Cow Pox were first promulgated, was highly laudable. To have admitted the truth of a doctrine, at once so novel and so unlike any thing that ever had appeared in the annals of medicine, without the test of the most rigid scrutiny, would have bordered upon temerity; but now, when that scrutiny has taken place, not only among ourselves but in the first professional circles in Europe, and when it has been uniformly found in such abundant instances that the human frame, when once it has felt the influence of the genuine Cow Pox in the way that has been described, is never afterwards at any period of its existence assailable by the Small Pox, may I not with perfect confidence congratulate my country and society at large on their beholding, in the mild form of the Cow Pox, an antidote that is capable of extirpating from the earth a disease which is every hour devouring its victims; a disease that has ever been considered as the severest scourge of the human race!'

Art. 30. *A Dissertation on the Extraordinary Attributes and inherent Virtues of Fixed Phlogistic Earth,* first discovered at Venice by Dr. Innocenzo Della Lena, of Lucca: &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. Glindon.

This pamphlet is nothing more than an advertisement of a quack-medicine; and it is the dearest morsel of the kind that we have lately seen. The powers ascribed to the medicine are prodigious, and remind us of My Lord Peter's infallible powder of *Pimperlimpiness,* in the Tale of a Tub.

We must admire the author's ingenuity, however, who not only saves the duty on advertisements by appearing in a pamphlet, but contrives to get a few shillings into his pocket, from unwary purchasers, into the bargain.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *A Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World:* accompanied with a Persuasive to Religious Moderation: To which is prefixed, an Account of Atheism, Deism, Theophilanthropism, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity, adapted to the present Times. By John Evans, A. M. Master of a Seminary for a limited number of Pupils, Pullin's Row, Islington. Fifth Edition. 12mo. pp. 240. 3s. 6d. Boards. Crosby. 1801.

An account formerly given of this publication will be found in our xxth vol. N. S. p. 105. It had then attained a second edition: during the time which has passed since that period, it has passed through others, of which this, as is said in the title page, contains considerable additions and improvements. The volume, as also a *sequel* which soon afterward appeared, obtained our hearty commendation, and that commendation we still readily allot. That a work of the kind is desirable and grateful to the public is, we think, clearly evinced by its rapid and continued sale; and the author has exerted himself to enrich his volume, which abounds with extracts, and (though not faultless) is rendered both amusing and instructive.

Some readers may be inclined to ask, whether we are to form our idea of the *Greek* church from the practice of the Russian lady, who in her excursions was attended by a silver *crucifix,* in a separate carriage, which she honoured or disgraced according to the success or disappointment resulting from her schemes and engagements. Such instances of superstition and folly are not wholly confined to the Greek or the Latin church: something of similar barbarism, in different ways, may appear in that which is called Protestant, or Reformed. The little anecdote, however, and not improperly, diversifies the volume; as also does a very circumstantial account, under the article *Baptists,* of the public administration of baptism by immersion, at a river

near

near Cambridge, not many years ago : the ceremony, as here related, was conducted in a serious, orderly, and decorous manner.

The *Theophilanthropists* appear here to greater advantage than has been sometimes allowed them.—When we take a general view of these several distinctions, and particularly of the Christian sects, the motley catalogue, as Mr. Evans terms it, presents, as he also remarks, but a melancholy picture ; yet in most, possibly in all of them, may be found people of sense and ability, or of real worth. The tribe of *Jumpers*, of whom we have before heard, we regarded, not as a distinct division, but as a few of a large party, who launched out more remarkably into some methodistical *extravagancies* : equally with them, perhaps, *grunters* and *groaners* might be admitted as a sect : but it is well judged to expose what may be the weakness and folly of some and the art of others. The variety of opinions prevalent among men has, no doubt, its use ; it certainly opens a wider scope for the exercise of a benevolent and candid spirit, to which purpose our author does not fail to apply it. The concluding pages of the volume may justly be recommended to the careful perusal and attention of all poor persons · happy will it be if Christians of every sentiment will heartily embrace the well founded inferences and instructions, which are here with great propriety and earnestness presented !

As Mr. Evans has improved his work, he seems also to have improved his style ; his book is, in general, well written : but defects, or marks of negligence might be pointed out. In p. 82, a saying ascribed to Clement the 14th, well-known by the name of Ganganelli, is related so imperfectly that, though the general meaning may be apprehended, the sentence remains obscure : but this may be an error of the press ; and still smaller inaccuracies detract not from the merit of the volume.

Art. 32. *A Summary View of the Nature and Tendency of Sunday-Evening Lectures*, in the Parish Churches of populous, or large manufacturing Cities and Towns, &c. 8vo. 6d. Crosby. 1802.

Many very sensible and convincing observations and arguments are here offered, relative to the establishment of Sunday Evening Lectures on church of England principles, under the patronage and regulation of the parish ministers and the subscribers to the institution ; particularly in populous cities and towns. The author's reflections on this important subject certainly merit the serious attention of the public, and especially of those who are alarmed at the progress said to have been made (p. 12.) by '*ungoverned zealots* which exist among us.'

LAW.

Art. 33. *Review of the Statutes and Ordinances of Assize*, which have been established in England from the fourth year of King John, 1202, to the thirty-seventh of his present Majesty. By G. Atwood, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. pp. 90. 5s. Egerton. 1801.

'The first ordinance,' according to this writer, 'for fixing the price of bread in England (as far as appears from authentic records) was established by proclamation in the fourth year of King John, A. D. 1202, 1202, as we are informed by Matthew Paris, in whose annals this ordinance is recorded: it is also inserted (probably copied from the last-mentioned author) in a collection of Anglo-Saxon and Anglo Norman laws published by the Rev. David Wilkins, S. T. P. This very imperfect regulation of assize continued in force little more than sixty years; for in the year 1266, in the 51st Henry III it was repealed by the statute of assize made in that year. By this ordinance, the baker was allowed the expences incurred in converting a quarter of corn into bread, at a fixed sum of money, together with a profit in corn or bread, which was adjusted to a more adequate proportion, and with fewer numerical mistakes, compared with the regulation of assize which was superseded by it. The beneficial provisions of the statute 51st Henry III. in a practical view, and the advantages the public derived from it, sufficiently appear from the long period of time in which it continued to regulate the prices of bread, during great vicissitudes of plenty and scarcity: affording a proportion of profit which the baker was well contented to accept, and the consumer paid without murmur or complaint.'

It is observable that, in different periods of our history, other articles of consumption have been subjected to an assize; the prices of ale and beer were fixed by the above statute of Henry III. and afterward by an ordinance in the 23d year of Henry VIII. The price of hay was regulated by law in the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when an assize was established for innholders, vintners, and butchers; and an assize for the sale of fuel took place at the same time. All these restraints, excepting those which regulate the price of bread, have long since been abrogated; and there are not wanting persons who think that even the price of bread might be left to find its own level, depending on the supply and demand for it, with great advantage to the public. This opinion was more than once intimated by the late Chief Justice of England, who conceived the measure of an assize rather pernicious than beneficial. Mr. Atwood, however, entertains contrary sentiments, and observes 'that many reasons seem to have concurred in opposing such a departure from the practice of our ancestors, confirmed by the uniform experience of many centuries.'

In this tract, many curious particulars will be found relative to the construction of tables of assize, the different prices of corn at different periods, and the money allowances proportioned to the general price of provisions, and the depretiation in the general value of money.

Mr. A. declares that, 'in the ensuing review of the statutes and ordinances of assize, it is not intended to offer any opinion respecting the proportion of allowance or profit which ought to be granted to the manufacturer of bread; but merely to state with precision, what the amount has actually been according to preceding regulations, and what it is according to the laws now existing; also to point out the principle on which these allowances have been given, distinguishing those which are apparent and avowed, from others which are either concealed from the public knowlege, or are less distinctly expressed.'

In the prosecution of this object, Mr Atwood has exercised a spirit of patient inquiry; and he has communicated to the public much useful knowlege on subjects that deserve serious consideration.

POETRY.

Art. 34. *The Free School*, a Poem. 2d Edition. To which is added an Elegy on the Death of Edmund Jenney, Esq. of Bredfield; and of Philip Bowes Broke, Esq. of Nacton. The former of whom died, after a severe illness, on August 22d, 1801; and the latter, suddenly, on the Day following. By the Rev. John Black. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

If the account which has been transmitted to us be correct, Mr. Black has been so very hardly treated, that we should be sorry by any asperity of remark to add to his troubles. With a large family, a wife who has been bed-ridden four years, and only a curate's income, how cruel would it be to take from him the Free School at Woodbridge, in order to bestow it on a Batchelor who has a living of 500l. a year! We hope that the decision of law will be in the curate's favour. Under the present frowns of fortune, however, Mr. B. is not altogether without resource:

" Supremely blest the Poet in his Muse."

He makes the Free School a subject of verse, and rhymes in spite of poverty and the lawyers:

' While *mea regna* I behold,
I'll rule, a king, *de jure*, bold:
Still let the lawyers spill their ink,
Still let them bite their nails, and think—
Let their subpœnas round me fly,
Rex puerorum still am I:—
Let Discord still inflate their lungs,
Still let them brawl with thund'ring tongues—
False informations let them bring—
Or in—or out—I still will sing.'

In kindness to Mr. B. we recommend to his consideration, as a classic, Horace's injunction respecting poems—*dulcia sunto.* The word *bulgent* is an ugly creation.—The line ' And busy *yeo* and windlass jar,' is extremely hobbling and inelegant; and ' While many a sight and many a sound *diffuses*,'—and ' If thou *bad*,' are instances of bad grammar.

If he would please the public, a poet should be very difficult in pleasing himself.

Art. 35. *The Conjunction of Jupiter and Venus in Leo*, on the 29th of September 1801. a happy Prelude to a Propitious Peace. A Poem.—Mercury's Apology for the Curate's Blunder, an Impromptu; addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Yarmouth; and other Poetical Pieces. By the Rev. John Black. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Astrological notions are not now sufficiently in fashion, to enable the poet to excite either hope or fear from the conjunction of Jupiter and Venus Yet the wish for peace must be always acceptable to a good Christian; and whether Jupiter and Venus be in conjunction or opposition, he will say amen to Mr. Black's prayer;

Sweet smiling Peace! from heaven descend!
Let War's loud clangours quickly end!
And Independence bring with thee,
With Order, Law, and Liberty!'
Let man in man a brother find;
And Concord's chain the nations bind.'

The thought is benevolent, but it might have been expressed in more correct and finished poetry.

Art. 36. *London, a Poem,* Satirical and Descriptive; illustrated with *Notes.* 12mo. Scott. 1802.

We have heard that the late ingenious Mr. George Stevens, commonly called "Shakspeare Stevens," said, when speaking of the celebrated *Pursuits of Literature,* that "the Poetry only served the author as *pegs* to hang the notes upon."—Something like this may be remarked of many subsequent productions, and also of the present smaller and less important performance; in which we find a variety of striking *notes,* satirical, political, and moral. If these be worth particular notice and preservation, (as we think many of them are,) it may not be deemed very important to inquire of what sort of *wood* the *pegs* are made: any thing will do for such lines and couplets as

'While polish'd manners gild the modern stall,
And Thames-street wears the colours of *Pall-Mall* *;

and,

'The general hum of *bu-si-ness* resounds:'

also,

'Sure vast Perus these *august* schemes support.'

For *August,* read *April.*

In his preface, the author observes that he has neither emulated Johnson nor imitated Gay, both of whom made choice of LONDON as a subject for the display of their poetic powers. This is modest, and very true: here is no comparison: but it must, nevertheless, be allowed that the present writer has manifested a considerable share of good sense, and knowlege of the world; with just strictures on what he thinks to be *wrong,* and proper *hints* as to what he deems *right* and fit to be done in the way of reformation.

Art. 37. *The Tears of Hibernia! dispelled by the Union.* A Poem. By William Thomas Fitz-Gerald, Esq. 4to. 1s. Stockdale.

To the benevolent politician and Christian, Ireland has long presented a very melancholy subject for contemplation. With all her faults, she has been "more sinned against than sinning;" and if she has not made that progress in civilization which has distinguished her sister island, the failure has been owing to her misfortunes and to the defective government under which she has been placed. Statutes of oppressive severity † have extended their iron rod over the major part

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[*] The name of this street is never pronounced so as to form a rhyme to *stall.*

'[†] Englishmen will scarcely believe that there once existed a law in Ireland which prohibited a Roman Catholic from riding a horse of more part of her inhabitants; and no pains were taken to remove the ignorance and depravity with which they were reproached. Hence we cordially wish that it may be said, *Jam nova progenies cœlo demittitur alto;* and that the Union of Ireland with Great Britain will be the means of bringing the former under the operative influence of a more generous and enlightened policy. This is the happy consequence which Mr. Fitzgerald apprehends. He contemplates Hibernia, in the midst of a most tremendous storm, standing on the Giant's Causeway; and, as she beholds her vales manured with blood, heaving a sigh and pouring forth her lamentations. As she is execrating the memory of Elizabeth and Cromwell, and deploring the late Rebellion, Britannia comes to her relief, informs her of the Union, of his Majesty's paternal care, and of the close friendship in which the sister islands were in future to be bound. The storm then ceases, angels attest the contract, and with the following cherubs' song the poem thus concludes:

> "The Island Queens shall rule the subject main!
> In friendship bless'd, secure from foreign yoke,
> The Irish harp shall grace the British oak!
> Strong be the roots, and verdant be the tree,
> The pride and bulwark of an empire free!
> And, as an off'ring, in its hallow'd shade,
> Be fears and jealousies for ever laid!
> Oblivion to HIBERNIA's sorrows past,
> And may the happy UNION ever last!"

Neither the plan nor the sentiments, nor the poetry, of this composition, will disgrace the author; and the whole is too short to tire the most lazy reader.

Art. 38. *Pitt and his Statue;* an Epistle to the Subscribers. Also Lord B— and his Motions, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to 2s. 6d. Walker.

Fond as we are of a good hearty laugh, we are never disposed to visit Wapping and St. Giles's, in order to indulge in this recreation; and though we have no objection to have a prime-minister lashed by the satiric Muse, whenever he deserves it, we cannot approve of the task being performed with grossness and vulgarity. *Est modus in rebus.* Wit should not run riot, and jump over all bounds; nor should satire degenerate into coarse abuse. True it is, Master Peter, that thou dost not sustain the honour of the castigating Muse. Do not mistake us, however, we are not *subscribers;* thou hast not "*galled*" us. So far from being in the number of the worshipers of the *heaven-born* ex-minister, we are ready to admit that his public life afforded thee opportunities of playing on him some spirited and lively satire; that the *Statue*, in particular, was a fair subject for thy pen; and that thou hast humorously furnished materials for the inscription which the pedestal ought to contain: but

thou

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more than five pounds value: if five guineas were offered by a Protestant for the animal worth one hundred, the disqualified Catholic was compelled to make the sale, and endure the insult.'

thou afterward descendest to the very bathos of satire. Thou art strictly within the bounds of thy profession, when thou thus describest the contents of the lines which are to be engraven beneath the ex-minister's image:

'There shall we see the name of WAR,
That many a soldier sends, and tar,
To sleep with their *still* fathers and *still* mothers;
For WAR, though seeming very *dread*,
By knocking thousands on the head,
Makes comfortable elbow-room for *others*.

'In letters, too, all large and fair,
OLD BAILEY on the eye may stare;
Where JUSTICE, with her sharpen'd shears,
Has lopp'd off many a liar's ears.

'In letters, too, superb and *bold*,
The name of INCOME-TAX be told,
That made so many millions *blest*;
And *eke* of poor old PENNY-POST,
That gave so sweetly up the ghost,
T'oblige the gaping Treas'ry's chest.'

These lines will be read with a smile, which is not kept up by recommending Jack Ketch to give Pitt a *halter*, to *swing* him at Newgate, or to *flog him at the cart's tail*.

We have also *another crow to pull with thee*, Master Peter. Why is thy Muse so frisky and *cloacinean*? The pun on Lord B.'s *Motions* made us turn away our noses; and as for the Baker's wife's little *oven*, it is too hot for us. In truth thou may'st as well let these things alone. Thou, however, wilt probably reject our cold advice, and wilt tell us that we are a set of old stupid codgers who have outlived our days of fun, while thy *imagination* still enjoys its pristine vigor; and that thou art resolved, whether thou attackest Monarchs, Bishops, or Prime Ministers, to manifest thy partiality to rosy lips and dimpled cheeks. If this be thy determination, we must leave thee to thy devices.

POLITICS.

Art. 39. *The true State of the House of Correction in Cold Bath Fields*, in the County of Middlesex, and also of the New Prison in the Parish of Clerkenwell, fairly examined. To which is subjoined a Sketch of the real Character of Mr. Thomas Aris, Governor of the House of Correction. By a Middlesex Magistrate. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1802.

'In the consideration of any important question on which a difference of opinion is entertained, it is proper for every individual, but particularly for a Reviewer, to exercise the greatest caution. Whether the house of correction in Cold Bath Fields has been properly or improperly governed, whether its regulations are to be praised for their mildness and expediency, or to be reprobated for their needless rigour, are points on which a difference of judgment notoriously exists; and no subject, of late years, has occasioned warmer disputes, or has been applied to more invidious purposes. For our own part, we are perfectly ready to discharge our duty by receiving evidence on either sides, and reporting its result to our readers.

With regard to the pamphlet before us, the first circumstance which strikes us is that it is anonymous, and therefore not intitled to implicit confidence; next, that, if it really proceeds from a *Middlesex Magistrate*, and if there be any thing reprehensible in the conduct of the prison, this writer must be considered as *particeps criminis*, and his production must be viewed with suspicion. He states himself to have been a member of the former committee for the regulation of the house of correction, but for particular reasons, to which he indirectly alludes, he and some of his friends ceased to belong to it. He admits that some of the rules, which have of late been introduced, are injudicious, and attended with bad consequences; and he particularly instances 'the feeding the prisoners from without the walls.' Before this measure was adopted, a spirit of industry was encouraged among the prisoners, and they were rewarded in proportion to their labour: many examples of which are here adduced. The admission of state prisoners is also represented as extremely detrimental to the interests of the house; and the author recommends visiting justices, instead of a committee. He concludes his pamphlet with the following observation:

'If the house of correction had never been applied to any purposes but its own—if the laws respecting the care, the maintenance, the instruction, and the employment of the prisoners had been strictly attended to—it is my firm belief that no place of confinement in this kingdom, (allowing for the far greater proportion in the number of the prisoners) would in these seven years have exhibited more instances of reformation and amendment, of health and comfort, of industry and good behaviour, than the house of correction for the county of Middlesex under the care and management of its present governor.'

All this, however, is hypothetical: but it admits the existence of present evils, which the author does not impute to the governor, whom he represents to be of unimpeachable integrity, and incapable of either extortion or cruelty towards his prisoners.

Art. 40. *Address to the Magistrates and People of Great Britain and Ireland*, occasioned by the alarming System of Modern Imprisonment adopted in some of the Prisons in Middlesex, Gloucester, Essex, Salop, Nottingham, York, Dorset, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Ridgway. 1802.

This is a declamatory pamphlet, from which no useful information can be collected. The author treats Mr. Aris as if he had been convicted of extortion and cruelty, but he states no facts; indeed, he does little more than call names. When he represents an individual as 'torture-master-general to the subjects of Great Britain,' and says that the bread furnished to the house of correction 'is in some measure a type of himself (Aris), as heavy as his fetters, and as black as his heart, he annihilates all expectation of impartiality and accurate statement.—He is not more favourable to the dead, than to the merits of the living: for example, we have the following portrait of

Mr. Akerman, the late governor of Newgate, who maintained not only an irreproachable but a meritorious character; 'Mr. Akerman has been by some people esteemed a man of humanity.—I knew him well: he was a tyrant, a coward, a fool, and a coxcomb.' *—Even the sacred name of Howard is not safe from the malignant aspersions of this anonymous reviler, who intimates an opinion that this benevolent Being visited the abodes of human wretchedness from no other motive than the *pleasure* which he derived from witnessing scenes of misery and of horror; and he has the effrontery to add: 'whether Mr. Howard intended to introduce secret tortures into the system of solitary confinement, I know not; but I blush for the weakness of that government, which could adopt such a system of imprisonment at the recommendation of a wandering enthusiast, and continue it for the benefit of a brutal tyrant.'

Art. 41. *Considerations on the late Elections for Westminster and Middlesex;* together with some Facts relating to the House of Correction in Cold Bath Fields. 8vo. pp. 86. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

We have here a work of a very different nature from the preceding; and though the censure which it inflicts on conspicuous characters is severe, yet it is supported by argument, and expressed in the language of moderation and temperance. The writer objects to the conduct of Mr. Fox and Sir Francis Burdett on the late elections for Westminster and the County of Middlesex; and he gives such reasons for his objections as, though they may not carry conviction to the mind of every reader, will not discredit the author in the estimation of any dispassionate person. He examines the question relative to the government of the House of Correction, with apparent fairness and impartiality; and he observes that 'it is to be regretted, (and none have more feelingly regretted it than the magistrates of Middlesex,) that this prison was ever appropriated to uses for which it was not designed, and that prisoners of a different description from those for whom it was originally intended, should have been confined in it. Under this character, amongst others, state prisoners and the mutineers are included.'

The author then accounts for the introduction of these characters; and, after having examined different passages in the report of the committee, he states the question in the following satisfactory manner:

'The point on which satisfaction will be required, is not, it is presumed, whether the arrangement, regulation, and management of the prison, are defective, and that they are so in various respects I freely admit, but whether that system of severity, inhumanity, cruelty, and torture, with which the conduct of the prison has been stigmatized, is or has been practised in it, and this I positively and directly deny.'

As the name of Mary Rich is probably familiar to most of our readers, and as her case has been compassionated by many, and was presented by the Grand Jury of the county as reflecting on the conduct

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* Mr. Kirby, the present keeper of Newgate, is however much praised by this writer.

duct of the magistrates, we shall quote the opinion of the committee, formed on the examination of the evidence:

'From the above examination, your Committee are of opinion that Mary Rich was properly treated during her confinement, and that every necessary care and attention had been paid to her by the Governor and the Doctor, and that she had lived better since she had been in the prison than in her usual mode of living with her father and mother.'

Of the votes of the Millers, which came in so questionable a shape, the following account (which we have reason for believing to be correct) may be acceptable to our readers:

'On th 27th July, 1801, a number of persons formed themselves into a society, under an agreement, to purchase a small piece of ground, whereon to erect a mill for grinding corn, for the purpose of supplying the subscribers with bread and flour, at their own houses, at prime cost; in consequence of which, a piece of ground was some time after found suitable for the purpose; and on the 13th October, 1801, (not before,) an agreement was entered into between the owner of the ground, (which is less than a quarter of an acre,) and a part of the society, that the owner, on being paid, or security being given to his satisfaction, for payment of £.360, should convey the premises to certain persons on the part of the society. In consequence of this agreement, made the 13th October, 1801, the society was suffered to take possession.

'The mill on the 30th July was not completed, nor had any profit been derived from it; nor had any conveyance then been executed. The mill, it appears, by private agreement between the subscribers, is to be divided into one thousand and two shares, at two guineas each, and every person so sharing claims a right of voting for the county of Middlesex.

'Upon this exposition of the case, two plain questions arise.

'1st. Whether *the payment of forty-two shillings* for a principal share in a free-hold property, as described, can be assumed as creating that qualification to vote which the law prescribes, that is, *a clear annual value of forty shillings*, over and above all deductions.

'2dly. Whether the voters had actually possessed or received a clear rent or profit to this amonnt, for twelve calendar months before they polled.

'Of the persons entering into this compact, three hundred and seventy appeared to vote for Sir Francis Burdett, and of course took the prescribed oath, *that they had acquired a freehold property of the clear annual value of forty shillings, over and above all deductions, rents, and charges, payable out of or in respect of the same, and that they had been in the actual possession or receipt of the rents and profits thereof for their own use twelve calendar months.*'

We have read this pamphlet with pleasure; the sentiments which it expresses do credit to the understanding and the feelings of the writer; and we recommend it to the attention of those whose political attachments and opinions are of a different complexion.

Art. 42. *Report of the Proceedings during the late contested Elections for the County of Middlesex;* including the State of each Day's Poll, with the Address and Speeches of Messrs. Byng, Mainwaring, and Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. with many other interesting particulars. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

A compilation from the news-papers, &c. arranged by some ardent friend of Sir Francis Burdett.

Art. 43. *The Speech of Sir Francis Burdett, Bart.* in the House of Commons, 12 April, 1802, on a Motion for an Inquiry into the Conduct of the Administration at Home and Abroad, during the War. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

This speech is here given in the first person, but we are not told whether it is published with the authority of the Honourable Baronet whose sentiments and expressions it is stated to convey. The fate of the motion which it preceded is well known.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS.

Art. 44. Preached at Armthorpe, Yorkshire, June 1, 1802. By John Whitehouse, Rector. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

The wisdom of prosecuting the late war with patience and firmness, and the promising circumstances under which the peace was concluded, are alike maintained by this preacher: while he contemplates with satisfaction the moderate and temperate policy of the French Government, and the re-establishment of the national worship. After having congratulated his countrymen on the peace, he extends his good wishes to our late enemies.

Art. 45. By R. Potter, A. M. Vicar of Lowestoff and Kessingland, and Prebendary of Norwich. 4to. 1s. Longman and Co.

Being disabled by age and infirmities from addressing his parishioners from the pulpit, Mr. Potter preaches to them on the present occasion from the press. Much of his sermon, however, though very just, is not very appropriate. He reprobates innovation, and contends for *things as they are.*

Art. 46. Preached at Barnstaple. By the Rev. Richard Taprell. 4to. 1s. Mawman.

While Mr. T.'s sermon is set to the good old tune of Peace and Plenty, he endeavours to gratify our national pride by recounting the many splendid naval victories which distinguished the late war: but the pleasure which arises from the contemplation of victories must be greatly abated, when we peruse his black list of the evils inseparable from war.

Art. 47. Preached at Berwick. By Samuel Butler, M. A. Head Master of Shrewsbury School, and late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

We are here desired to recollect that, sanguinary as the late contest has been, no British blood has flowed on British ground; and that, in expressing our gratitude for the singular protection of Providence during the war, and for the restoration of Peace, we ought to remember that the continuance of God's mercies to us his *peculiar people* must depend on the use which we make of them. Though the preacher admits that Peace is better than war, he is so apprehensive of French imitation as to assert that, during the war, our moral and religious character was more secure that it is now. If this be true, the Peace is no blessing, and we should have persevered in cutting throats for the love of God.

Art. 48. Preached at Mile-End New Town, Stepney. By John Cottingham. 8vo. 1s. Gardner.

Unlike the preceding preacher, Mr. Cottingham contemplates war as incapable of producing any moral fruit. He asserts that it has a baneful influence on society, and that it withers every blossom of public virtue. Such a man can truly rejoice that Peace has returned to *Britain*, which he regards as *the Glory of all lands*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have been obliged by a Correspondent, just returned from Paris, with some information which will probably be interesting to the Philosophical world. It has been resolved to institute a sort of Continuation of the Memoirs of the "*Academie des Sciences*," under the title of *Annales du Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle:* one of the leading objects of which undertaking is to explain, for the benefit of students, the immense collection of Natural History, &c. which this singularly extensive museum contains, and to develope the principles of true science. It is not intended to wait for such a collection of papers as would be necessary to constitute a volume, but to publish with greater dispatch in the form of numbers; and for this purpose, the Professors have agreed to meet once in a week, to communicate to each other the result of their observations and labours in their respective departments, and to decide on the papers which are to be given to the world. These Annals are to appear regularly on the 15th of every month, and the first number will be issued in the beginning of October next. The Professors of the *Museum*, who have engaged in this undertaking, are MM. *Hauy*, *Fourcroy*, *Brongniard*, *Desfontaines*, *Jussieu*, *Goeffroy*, *Lacépède*, *Lamarck*, *Portal*, *Mertrud*, *Thouin*, *Faujas*, *Vanspaendonck*, and *Cuvier*.

Our modest Correspondent at Dolgelly has, perhaps, no reason to fear that his work will excite our 'indignation:' but, at any rate, he may depend on our not setting that "mark on its forehead" which he deprecates.

We have not yet seen "*the Parents' Friend.*"

Dr. Dickson's letter is received, but it arrived too late in the month for present attention.

The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXVIII. of the MONTHLY REVIEW is published with this Number.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1802.

Art. I. *General Zoology*; or, Systematic Natural History. By George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. with Plates, from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. III. in 2 Parts. 8vo.

[*Article continued from Rev. Sept. p.* 28. *]

That numerous class of animals to which Linné applied the epithet *amphibious*, because many of them can subsist indifferently on land or in water, exhibit in their structure and modes of existence some of the most remarkable phænomena with which we are acquainted. Simplicity of organization, tenacity of the vital principle, hybernation in cold and temperate latitudes, and the oviparous production of their offspring, distinguish most of this class. A portion of the system of nature, then, so fraught with interest and singularity, might well justify an extension of preliminary matter; and, though every compiler should study precision, Dr. Shaw might have availed himself with more latitude of the Linnéan preface to this class, and of the Count de la Cépède's introductory discourse. The latter, duly modified and reduced, and incorporated with the former, would furnish an acceptable treat to the English reader.

The present volume, like the two preceding, consists of two parts. The first, illustrated by 87 plates, includes the *footed*, or *reptile* tribes, under the threefold division of *Tortoises*, *Frogs*, and *Lizards*; and the second, containing 55 plates, treats of the *footless*, or *Serpent* kinds.

Much confusion and uncertainty have long prevailed, with regard to the characters and synonyms of the various species of Tortoise. Linné's own distinctions are extremely inadequate to the elucidation of the nomenclature; and Buffon, or his continuator, the Count de la Cépède, who penned an elaborate history of the amphibia, has done little to remove obscurity. It cannot, therefore, be expected that Dr. Shaw should present us with a correct catalogue; to the composition of which, frequent collations of most of the living species, in the various stages of their growth, would be requisite: but we may safely assert that he has unravelled part of the perplexity, and pointed to some gross oversights in the writings of his predecessors.—Thirty-nine species of *Testudo*, besides several real or supposed varieties, are here particularized in the course of 86 pages; and the structure of this, and of several other genera, is illustrated by plates of the skeleton,—a truly useful accompaniment of every detailed system of zoology. For the sake of the curious reader, we could even have wished for a more ample fund of anatomical description, diffused through the work.

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* The price of this work was incorrectly stated in our last Review. The 3 Vols. in six, on small paper, sell for 6l. 16s. 6d. boards: on large paper, for 10l. 2s. boards.

Dr. S. has properly adverted to a strange inaccuracy of the Count de la Cépède; who assigns to the *Testudo Græca*, or common land Tortoise, the attributes of the *Marginata*. It is, indeed, somewhat surprizing that the species of Tortoise most accessible to European naturalists has been, as yet, very imperfectly described. Its extreme longevity, frequently exceeding a century, has been ascertained beyond dispute. If, however, we would form a fair estimate of the duration of *life*, properly so called, allotted to the Tortoise and other amphibious animals, we should make no inconsiderable deduction on account of animation nearly suspended by torpor and protracted slumbers.

The following experiments may gratify curiosity, but considerations of real utility can alone justify their cruelty:

'Redi informs us, that in making some experiments on vital motion, he, in the beginning of November, took a land Tortoise, and made a large opening in its skull, and drew out all the brain, washing the cavity, so as to leave not the smallest part remaining; and then, leaving the hole open, set the animal at liberty. Notwithstanding this treatment, the Tortoise marched away, without seeming to have received the smallest injury: it however closed its eyes, and never opened them afterwards. In a short space the hole of the skull was seen to close, and in about three days there was a complete skin covering the wound; and in this manner the animal lived, without the brain, for six months, walking about, and moving its limbs as before. Redi also cut off the head of a Tortoise, which lived twenty-three days afterwards; and the head itself continued to snap the jaws for more than a quarter of an hour after its separation from the body. He repeated the experiment of taking out the brain upon several other Tortoises, both of land and fresh water; all of which lived for a considerable space without the brain. He observed also, that having cut off the heads of some, and opening the bodies twelve days afterwards, the motion of the heart was still perceptible; so slowly is the vital principle discharged from these inactive animals.'

The march of the *close* Tortoise, whose length seldom exceeds four or five inches, is not interrupted by a weight of 500 or 600 lbs.—The species denominated *fierce*, which sometimes weighs 70 lbs., will, contrary to the tardy and phlegmatic dispositions of its congeners, spring with vigour and alacrity against an assailant. M. de la Cépède has termed it the *soft* (*la molle*), an epithet sufficiently characteristic of one of its physical qualities, but at variance with its habits, and with the Linnæan appellation *ferox*.

From a comparison of the descriptions and references, it would appear that the *Squamata* of Bontius and of the Gmelinian edition of the System of Nature, is an animal of equivocal character; forming, perhaps, the connecting link between the Tortoise and the Lizard tribes.

Sea Tortoises, or, as they more commonly called, *Turtles*, are less numerous than the land kinds, and are obviously distinguished from them by long fin-shaped feet, in which the bones of the toes are inclosed. Of all known Turtles, the *coriaceous* is the most gigantic; attaining, sometimes, to the length of eight feet, and weighing 1000 lbs.

'In the month of August, in the year 1729, a specimen was taken about three leagues from Nantz, not far from the mouth of the river *Loire*, and which measured seven feet one inch in length, three feet seven inches in breadth, and two feet in thickness. It is said to have uttered a hideous noise when taken, so that it might be heard to the distance of a quarter of a league; its mouth at the same time foaming with rage, and exhaling a noisome vapour. In the year 1778, a specimen was taken on the coast of Languedoc, which measured seven feet five inches in length. In July 1756, one was taken on the coast of Cornwall, which, according to Dr. Borlace, "measured six feet nine inches from the tip of the nose to the end of the shell; ten feet four inches from the extremities of the fore fins extended; and was adjudged to weigh eight hundred pounds weight." The fine specimen in the Leverian Museum was of similar weight, and was taken on the coast of Dorsetshire.'

It is remarkable that the Carthusians, whose rules proscribe the use of butcher's meat, will eat of no Turtle but the coriaceous, notwithstanding the coarseness and bad flavour of its flesh. The ghost of St. Bruno would not *now* chide them, though they should venture to taste a little of the *green*.

Of the *imbricated* Turtle, or hawk's-bill, we are told that

'The flesh is in no estimation as food, the lamellæ or plates of the shell, which are far stronger, thicker, and clearer than in any other kind, constituting the sole value of the animal, and affording the substance particularly known by the name of *tortoise-shell:* they are semitransparent, and most elegantly variegated with whitish, yellowish, reddish, and dark brown clouds and undulations, so as to constitute, when properly prepared and polished, one of the most elegant articles for ornamental purposes.'—

'A large Turtle is said to afford about eight * pounds of Tortoise-shell.

'In order to bring Tortoise shell into the particular form required on the part of the artist, it is steeped in boiling water, till it has acquired a proper degree of softness, and immediately afterward committed to the pressure of a strohg metallic mould of the figure required; and where it is necessary that pieces should be joined, so as to compose a surface of considerable extent, the edges of the respective pieces are first scraped or thinned, and being laid over each other during their heated state, are committed to a strong press, by which means they are effectually joined or agglutinated. These are the methods also by which the various ornaments of gold, silver, &c. are occasionally affixed to the Tortoise-shell.

'The Greeks and Romans appear to have been peculiarly partial to this elegant ornamental article, with which it was customary to decorate the doors and pillars of their houses, their beds, &c. &c. In the reign of Augustus this species of luxury seems to have been at its height in Rome.'

It is asserted, in a note, that Tortoise-shell is not capable of being melted, as is vulgarly supposed. Yet M. de la Cépède affirms that it may be fuzed *to a certain degree.*

The flesh of the hawk's-bill, if we may credit Dampier, is not only of *no estimation*, but actually poisonous, inducing severe vomiting, diarrhæa, and fever. The safety of the mariner, who has always hardships enough to encounter, should invite to an investigation of this subject. Meanwhile, we would advise all whom it may concern, to abstain from the suspected morsel.

Eighty-one pages are allotted to the genus *Rana:* whose fifty species are classed, according to a comparatively recent distribution, into *ranæ*, or Frogs, properly so called, distinguished by their light, active bodies, and their faculty of leaping, when disturbed,—*hylæ*, *calamitæ*, *ranæ arboreæ*, or Tree-frogs, recognized by their slender limbs, and living frequently on trees,—and *bufones*, or Toads, remarked for their heavy, sluggish bodies, short thick limbs, crawling motion, &c.—The author's account of the common Frog, in its different stages of being and growth, will amply reward the patience of the reader; and let none suppose that accuracy of detail, on a subject ap-

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'* According to Mr. Schoepf, from five to fifteen or twenty pounds; and unless the animal itself be about the weight of a hundred and fifty pounds, the shell is not worth much.'

parently so familiar, is at all superfluous, since Bacon, the illustrious partisan of observation and experiment, betrayed his ignorance of the history of this humble quadruped.

'In his *Sylva Sylvarum*, or *Natural Historie*, he speaks, as an extraordinary and peculiar circumstance, of young Frogs and Toads having been sometimes observed with tails, in such years as have been more than commonly pestilential or unhealthy; from whence he draws the conclusion, that the appearance of such tailed animals "argueth a great disposition to putrefaction in the soile and aire" ! ! !

Notwithstanding M. de la Cépède's contrary opinion, we cannot help agreeing with Dr. Shaw in representing the Bull and Argus Frogs as really distinct species, and, consequently, intitled to their respective epithets, *Catesbeiana* and *Orellata*. Indeed, the French naturalist, like others of his countrymen, is partial to the doctrine of *permanent varieties*: but we should be glad to know in what *essential* respects a *permanent variety* differs from a *species*.

On cool inquiry, the *paradoxical* or *proteus* Frog is found to have no appropriate claim to such a designation: but Madame Merian had given currency to the tale of its transformation into a *fish*,—and, 'ere *the days of chivalry were gone*, what gallant philosopher would disbelieve?

Of the Frogs, properly so called, several new species are here introduced, and briefly described: but little respecting their natural history is yet known.—The *Seminamensis* and *Virginiana altera* of Seba are presumed, and with much probability, to belong to the *maxima* of the Gmelinian edition.—Schneider's authority is quoted to prove that the *scaly* Frog so pompously announced by Wallbaum, and gravely inserted by Gmelin, was no other than the *boans*; to the back of which, accidentally adhered a shred of the skin of some serpent or lizard, which had been preserved in the same bottle!

It is observed of the Tree-Frogs, that they are particularly clamorous on the approach of rain; and that the males, kept in glasses, and properly nourished, afford an infallible presage of the changes of weather:

'The Toad was formerly supposed to be a great enemy to the Spider; or rather the Spider to the Toad. On this subject a tale is told by Erasmus, so completely absurd, so curiously ridiculous, that it may well serve as a standard proof of the general ignorance which prevailed at that less enlightened period.

"Monachus quidam, &c. &c." *Erasm. de Amicitia.*

'The tale is thus translated by Topsel:

"There was a Monk, who had in his chamber divers bundles of green rushes, wherewithal he strowed his chamber at his pleasure: it happened on a day after dinner, that he fell asleep upon one of those bundles of rushes, with his face upward, and while he there slept, a great Toad came and sat upon his lips, bestriding him in such a manner as his whole mouth was covered. Now when his fellows saw it they were at their wit's end *, for to pull away the Toad was an unavoidable death, but to suffer her to stand still upon his mouth was a thing more cruel than death; and therefore one of them espying a Spyder's web in the window, wherein was a great Spyder, he did advise that the Monk should be carried to that window, and laid with his face upward right underneath the Spyder's web, which was presently accomplished. And as soon as the Spyder saw her adversary the Toad, she presently wove her thread, and descended down upon the Toad, at the first meeting whereof the Spyder wounded the Toad, so that it swelled, and at the second meeting it swelled more, but at the third time the Spyder kild the Toad, and so became grateful to her Host which did nourish her in his Chamber."

"The antipathy between a Toad and a Spider," says Sir Thomas Brown, "and that they poisonously destroy each other, is very famous, and solemn stories have been written of their combats, wherein most commonly the victory is given unto the Spider. Of what Toads and Spiders it is to be understood would be considered; for the *Phalangium* and deadly Spiders are different from those we generally behold in England. However the verity hereof, as also of many others, we cannot but desire; for hereby we might be surely provided of proper antidotes in cases which require them; but what we have observed herein, we cannot in reason conceal; who having in a glass included a Toad with several Spiders, we beheld the Spiders without resistance to sit upon his head, and pass over all his body, which at last, upon advantage, he swallowed down, and that in a few hours, to the number of seven. And in like manner will Toads also serve bees, and are accounted enemies unto their hives."

'From the experiments of Laurenti, it appears that small lizards, on biting the common Toad, were for some time disordered and paralytic, and even appeared to be dead, but in some hours were completely recovered.

'It is also observed, that dogs, on seizing a Toad, and carrying it for some little time in their mouth, will appear to be affected with a very slight swelling of the lips, accompanied by an increased evacuation of saliva; the mere effect of the slightly acrimonious fluid which the toad on irritation exsudes from its skin, and which seems, in this country at least, to produce no dangerous symptoms in such animals as happen to taste or swallow it. The limpid fluid also, which this animal suddenly discharges when disturbed, is a mere watry liquor, perfectly free from any acrimonious or noxious qualities, and appearing to be no other than the contents of a peculiar reservoir, common to this tribe, destined for some purpose in the economy of the animals which does not yet appear to be clearly understood. The common Toad may therefore be pronounced innoxious, or perfectly free from any poisonous properties, at least with

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'* And that, seemingly, *no very long tether!* to use an expression of the facetious Dr. Baynard.'

respect to any of the larger animals; and the innumerable tales recited by the older writers, of its supposed venom, appear to be either gross exaggerations, or else to have related to the effects of some other species mistaken for the common Toad; it being certain that some of this genus exude from their skin a highly acrimonious fluid.

'The Toad is, however, looked upon with great aversion by the major part of mankind, and it must be confessed, that its appearance is not captivating: yet the eyes are remarkably beautiful; being surrounded by a reddish gold-coloured iris, the pupil, when in a state of contraction, appearing transverse.

'It might seem unpardonable to conclude the history of this animal without mentioning the very extraordinary circumstance of its having been occasionally discovered enclosed, or imbedded, without any visible outlet, or even any passage for air, in the substance of wood, and even in that of stone or blocks of marble. For my own part, I have no hesitation in avowing a very high degree of scepticism, as to these supposed facts, and in expressing my suspicions that proper attention, in such cases, was not paid to the real situation of the animal. That a Toad may have occasionally latibulized in some part of a tree, and have been in some degree overtaken or enclosed by the growth of the wood, so as to be obliged to continue in that situation, without being able to effect its escape, may perhaps be granted: but it would probably continue to live so long only as there remained a passage for air, and for the ingress of insects, &c. on which it might occasionally feed; but that it should be completely blocked up in any kind of stone or marble, without either food or air, appears entirely incredible, and the general run of such accounts must be received with a great many grains of allowance for the natural love of the marvellous, the surprise excited by the sudden appearance of the animal in an unsuspected place, and the consequent neglect of minute attention at the moment, to the surrounding parts of the spot where it was discovered *.'

'* On this subject a curious experiment was made by Mons. Herrissant of the French academy, in consequence of an assertion, that in the year 1771, on pulling down a wall at a seat belonging to the Duke of Orleans, and which had been built forty years, a living Toad had been found in it; its hind feet being confined or imbedded in the mortar. Mr. Herrissant, therefore, in the presence of the Academy, inclosed three Toads in as many boxes, which were immediately covered with a thick coat of plaister or mortar, and kept in the apartments of the Academy. On opening these boxes eighteen months afterwards, two of the Toads were found still living: these were immediately reinclosed: but on being again opened some months after, were found dead. These experiments are, perhaps, not very conclusive; and only appear to prove what was before well known, viz. that the Toad, like many other Amphibia, can support a long abstinence, and requires but a small quantity of air: but in the accounts generally given of Toads discovered in stones, wood, &c. the animals are said to have been completely impacted and imbedded, and without any space for air.'

The following among other singular particulars are related of the *Pipa*, or Surinam Toad:

'It was for a long time supposed that the ova of this extraordinary animal were produced in the dorsal cells, without having been first excluded in the form of spawn; but later observations have proved that a still more extraordinary process takes place; and that the spawn after exclusion, is received into the open cells of the back, and there concealed till the young have arrived at maturity. This discovery was made by Dr. Fermin, who had an opportunity, during his residence at Surinam, to investigate the natural history of the Pipa in a more accurate manner than had before been practicable. His account is, that the female Pipa deposits her eggs or spawn at the brinks of some stagnant water; and that the male collects or amasses the heap of ova, and deposits them with great care on the back of the female, where, after impregnation, they are pressed into the cellules, which are at that period open for their reception, and afterwards close over them; thus retaining them till the period of their second birth; which happens in somewhat less than three months, when they emerge from the back of the parent in their complete state. During the time of their concealment, however, they undergo the usual change of the rest of this genus, being first hatched from the egg in the form of a tadpole; and gradually acquire their complete shape, some time before their exclusion. This latter circumstance, which does not appear to have been known to Fermin, is confirmed by the united testimonies of Camper, Blumenbach, and Spallanzani, who have all had an opportunity of inspecting specimens of the animal in a state favourable to the examination of this particular. Upon the whole, it appears that there is some analogy in the process of nature with respect to the production of the young, between this animal and the opossum.'

Schneider, on the authority of Irignon, an eye-witness, thus describes the process by which Toads get rid of their old vestment:

'The skin splits or cracks in a longitudinal direction both above and below; and the animal pulls off that of the left side with its left foot, and delivering it into the right foot, applies it to its mouth and swallows it: it then performs the same process on the right side with the right foot, and delivering the cuticle into the left foot, swallows it like the former.'

The genus *Draco* consists of only one, or two species at most; Linnie's *præpos* being supposed to be a variety of the *volans*. The latter, still the bugbear of ignorance and childhood, and a conspicuous piece of machinery in tales of romance, figures in the pages of natural history as a pretty, little, harmless creature, furnished with membranous or winglike ces, and springing from bough to bough with the agi- a squirrel:

'It may not be improper here to add, that all the other animals described and figured in the works of some of the older naturalists, under the name of Dragons, are merely fictitious beings, either artificially composed of the skins of different animals, or made by warping some particular species of the Ray or Skate tribe into a dragon-like shape, by expanding and drying the fins in an elevated position, adding the legs of birds, &c. and otherwise disguising the animals. Such also are the monstrous representations (to be found in Gesner and Aldrovandus) of a seven-headed Dragon, with gaping mouths, long body, snake-like necks and tail, and feet resembling those of birds. These deceptions appear to have been formerly practised with some success; and misled not only the vulgar, but even men of science. Of this a curious example is said to have occurred towards the close of the seventeenth century, and is thus commemorated by Dr. Grainger, from a note of Dr. Zachary Grey, in his edition of Hudibras, vol. i. p. 125.

"Mr. Smith, of Bedford, observes to me, on the word *Dragon*, as follows: Mr. Jacob Bobart, botany professor [*] of Oxford, did, about forty years ago, find a dead rat in the physic garden, which he made to resemble the common picture of dragons, by altering its head and tail, and thrusting in taper sharp sticks, which distended the skin on each side till it mimicked wings. He let it dry as hard as possible. The learned immediately pronounced it a dragon; and one of them sent an accurate description of it to Dr. Magliabechi, librarian to the grand Duke of Tuscany; several fine copies of verses were wrote on so rare a subject; but at last Mr. Bobart owned the cheat; however it was looked upon as a master-piece of art; and, as such, deposited in the Museum, or Anatomy-School, where I saw it some years after."

'The most remarkable instance in later times, is that of a Dragon of the kind above-mentioned, which was in possession of a merchant at Hamburgh, and which was considered by its proprietor as of the value of 10,000 florins; but which the penetrating eye of Linnæus, during his visit to that city, soon discovered to be a mere deception, ingeniously contrived by a dextrous combination of the skins of snakes, teeth of weesels, claws of birds, &c. being, as Linnæus himself expresses it, "*non Naturæ sed artis opus eximium.*" It is said that Linnæus, in consequence of this discovery, was obliged to fly from Hamburgh, in order to avoid the wrath of the enraged proprietor, who determined on a prosecution against him, as having injured the reputation of his property. An exact representation of this curious imposture is given by Seba, who, however, does not, as commonly supposed, describe it as a really existing species, but merely as so reported.'

The numerous *Lacertæ* are next introduced to our notice, under the convenient, though not altogether accurate, division of *Crocodiles*, *Guanas*, *Cordyles*, *Lizards proper*, *Chamæleons*,

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'[*] Not, properly speaking, Professor, but rather Superintendant of the garden.'

Geckos, Skinks, Salamanders, and *Snake-Lizards*. Previously to the discussion of the specific details, we could have desired a comprehensive statement of those common properties and general views, which, while they bestow consistency on systematic arrangements, and consequently facilitate the recollection of their parts, supersede subsequent repetitions, and invite to the contemplation of those beautifully connecting shades, which harmoniously combine the countless productions of Nature.—Several of the principal circumstances in the history of the Crocodile are related in a masterly manner, though the Count de la C. had treated the same subject with much variety and effect; and we must again bear testimony to Dr. Shaw's superior accuracy, when he alleges that the Nilotic Crocodile differs, specifically, from the American Alligator, and that the Gangetic differs from both.

That the Guana, though not easily dispatched by blows, is quickly deprived of life by pushing a sharp instrument, or even a straw, through its nostrils, has been asserted by writers worthy of credit, and might have been noticed with propriety in the present volume. Future observation may perhaps confirm the surmise that animals, apparently the most tenacious of life, may be extremely vulnerable in particular points, and incapable of resisting certain simple applications. Thus, as appears from the sequel, snuff is a speedy poison to the common grey Lizard; and immersion in sea-water, or the rubbing of common salt on the back, arrests for ever the motions of the newt, an animal so remarkable for its powers of reproduction.

In the course of his remarks on the bicarinated Lizard, Dr. Shaw gently hints that M. de la Cépède had confounded it with the *Dracona* of Linné: but Schneider affirms that the Count's figure of the latter is, fortunately, an excellent representation of the *Bicarinata*, of which no accurate engraving had till then appeared. *We ought, therefore*, adds he, with malignant slyness, *rather to thank the Frenchman for his blunder, than censure his want of accuracy.*

Whoever has compared the living green and grey Lizard will, we should imagine, find little difficulty in ranking them as distinct species. The sportive and caressing habits of these little nimble creatures are admirably painted by the French naturalist, whom we have so often quoted in the course of these remarks.

Most of the peculiarities mentioned respecting the Chamæleons are curious and circumstantial, but too much extended for our insertion. A few of this division, regarded as varieties by

Linné, have been exalted into species by his editor Gmelin, and exhibited as such in the present system.

In these days of sober research, the *Salamander* is found to inhabit various parts of Europe, to produce its young perfectly formed, (previously hatched from internal eggs,) and to be alike incapable of existing in flame or of communicating poison.

On opening the Second Part of this volume, we have again to lament a deficiency of preliminary matter. Buffon's prefatory discourse, or that of his continuator, has indeed been spun out to an unnecessary length, and is not wholly exempt from inconsistencies: but it presents us with several general and important facts, and with some attractive allusions to the history and superstitions of mankind.

Individuals of the Serpent race elude or impose on observation, by the rapidity of their movements, or the similarity of their aspect; while others, by inspiring a strong sense of danger, repel examination. Hence a want of accurate discrimination among the species, which have been vulgarly computed at 150. We should observe, however, in justice to Dr. Shaw, that, with his usual sagacity and discretion, he follows the most approved authors; or, at least, never deviates from them without a sufficient reason.

The *Crotali*, or Rattle-snakes, are delineated with elegant precision, and illustrated by handsome engravings. Dr. Shaw dismisses the doctrine of *fascination*, which Professor Barton has probably put to rest *; and he also duly records the late observations of M. de Beauvois respecting the custom of these animals receiving their young into their mouths, on the approach of danger †.

May not the contradictory testimonies, (here recited with great fairness) relative to the poison of the common viper, be reconciled on the supposition that the virus, especially in northern latitudes, may sometimes prove deficient, or be occasionally exhausted by frequent listing?—In case of a bite from a viper, it is always safe and often successful to rub the wound with olive oil.—The joint authority of Mr. White of Selborne and Sir Thomas Brown would incline us to believe that the Viper, as is mentioned above of the rattle-snake, takes its young into its mouth, in cases of emergency. 'I have myself,' adds Dr. S. 'received on this subject the information of a gentleman of great accuracy of observation, and who assures me of the truth of this particular in the natural history of the Viper:' Not so M. de la Cépède; who deems the remark unworthy of serious refutation, and is contented to allege that, if ever our young Vipers have been observed to be swallowed by their mother, they must have fallen a sacrifice to her rage for food.

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* See Rev. for May last, p. 13. † Ibid. p. 21.

We consider Dr. Russel's experiments on the poison of the Spectacle-Snake, or *Cobra de Capello*, and his Indian catalogue of the varieties, as valuable additions to the account of this highly noxious animal.—Similar experiments are recorded of the Russelian Snake, whose bite is more speedily fatal.

Of the numerous remaining species of *Coluber*, we are presented with little more than a descriptive catalogue; nor could more be reasonably expected. Our remark, however, applies not to the *French Snake.*

'This seems to be the species figured in Aldrovandus under the name of *Anguis Æsculapii* niger, and which appears to have been so little attended to by modern naturalists as to have been generally confounded with the preceding, till it was again brought to notice by Mons. Daubenton, and afterwards by the Count de Cépède, who has accurately described it, and who informs us that it is very frequent in some of the Provinces of France, being found in woods and moist shady places: in its general size and appearance it resembles the Ringed Snake or *Natrix*, but differs in colour, being of an extremely dark or blackish green, so as to appear black on a cursory view, the sides being marked by numerous rays of yellow specks, of different forms, some oblong, and some square, and which form somewhat more decided or distinctly marked stripes towards the tail than towards the head: the eyes and edges of the mouth are bordered with yellow scales: the abdomen is also yellow, each scutum being marked on each side by a black speck. This snake is an animal of a perfectly harmless nature, and, like the former, is capable of being tamed to a considerable degree. The Count de Cépède relates, from Mr. Bomare, an anecdote relative to a Snake which he supposes to have been of this species, which had been so completely tamed by a lady, as to come to her whenever she called it, follow her in her walks, wreath itself round her arms, and sleep in her bosom. One day, when this lady went in a boat, to some distance up a large river, she threw the snake into the water; imagining that it would readily recover the boat by swimming; but the current proving unusually strong, at that juncture, owing to the advance of the tide, the poor animal, in spite of all its efforts to reach the vessel, was unfortunately drowned. On the approach of winter, this species, like the former, retires into subterraneous retreats, and passes that season in a state of torpidity, from which it recovers in the spring, when it casts its skin, and appears in its highest beauty.'

Dr. Shaw adopts the Schneiderian genus *Hydrus*, comprehending those serpents which haunt the water, and have flattened tails. Their history is still obscure; and we even doubt whether any of the species constantly inhabit the sea. An in- [illegible] of the fasciated kind, described by Dr. Russel, was found on the beach at Vizigapatam, to all appearance vigorous and active, but it quickly died when put into a vessel of sea-water.

The *Langaya Nasuta* is described from a memoir of Bruginère, of the Royal Society of Montpellier; and the species belonging to the genera *Acrochordus Anguis* (translated *Slow-worm*), *Amphisbæna*, and *Cecilia*, are recorded with that brevity which is the result of our imperfect knowlege of their respective histories.

A short but amusing Appendix exhibits the doubtful family of *Sirens*;—no longer, alas! the enchanting songsters of fancy and the poets, *their voice being a* STRONG HISS, *louder than might be expected from the size of the animal.*

‘ Anguine Siren.

‘ This singular animal is found in as singular a situation; being an inhabitant of the celebrated and romantic Lake called Lake Zirknitz, about six German miles from Labac, in the Dutchy of Carniola in Austria. From this lake, which is somewhat more than a German mile in length, and half as much in breadth, the water regularly retires during the summer, by numerous subterraneous outlets or holes at the bottom; leaving the ground dry, and fit for pasture, the cultivation of millet, &c. &c. as well as for various kinds of hunting and other amusements: but in the month of October it again returns, with great force; springing out of the passages before mentioned from a vast depth, till the Lake is completely filled. It is situated in a hollow or valley, surrounded by rocky and woody mountains, in which are vast caverns, and is principally supplied by eight rivulets running into it from the adjoining mountainous region. Of this Lake, with a probable theory of its phænomena, an ample description may be found in the sixteenth volume of the Philosophical Transactions.

‘ The species of Siren at present to be described is extremely rare, and is found, in the spring, and towards the decline of summer, in some particular parts of the above-mentioned lake, and commonly measures, when full grown, from about ten to twelve or thirteen inches in length; the largest specimens being near three quarters of an inch in diameter. It is entirely of a pale rose or flesh-colour, or even nearly white, except the three pair of ramified branchial fins on each side the neck, which are of a bright red or carmine colour. Its general shape is that of an eel; the body being cylindric, till towards the end of the tail, where it becomes flat, and is attenuated both above and below into a kind of fatty fin, scarce (scarcely) distinguishable from the rest of the tail: the skin is every where smooth and even; the head of a somewhat depressed form, with a lengthened, obtuse, and widish snout, and has no external eyes: the mouth is moderately wide, and furnished with a row of very minute teeth: the legs are about three quarters of an inch in length; the fore legs being situated almost immediately behind the branchial fins, and the feet furnished with three toes, without any appearance of claws: the hind legs are situated at a great distance backwards, towards the commencement of the tail, and are of the same appearance with the fore legs, but the feet have only two toes, which, like those of the fore feet, are destitute of claws. The motions of the animal, when taken out of the water, are, in general, extremely slow and languid; as is also the case when kept in a vessel of water; but when in its native lake, it is sometimes observed to swim pretty briskly, waving its body in a serpentine direction, in the manner of a leech.

'The Anguine Siren is well figured by Laurenti, who seems to have been its first describer, in his work entitled *Specimen Meditum, exhibens Synopsin Reptilium*, under the title of Proteus Anguinus.

'With respect to its real nature, Zoologists are not yet agreed: some imagining it to be the Larva of some species of Lizard, whose gradations have not been fully ascertained; while others, with perhaps equal probability, suppose it a complete or perfect animal.'

We have thus resumed and concluded our examination of this highly useful and interesting work, noting such passages and observations as seemed necessary to convey some suitable ideas of its extent, variety, and merits.—Dr. Shaw, we hope, will pardon us if, for the sake of the ladies and such of the gentleman as love plain English, we again suggest that, in his future volumes, he should abstain from a few newly created or crabbed terms *, which disfigure the purity and terseness of his style.

ART. II. *A Treatise on the Culture and Management of Fruit-Trees*; in which a new Method of pruning and training is fully described. To which is added, a new and improved Edition of "Observations on the Diseases, Defects, and Injuries, in all Kinds of Fruit and Forest Trees:" with an Account of a particular Method of Cure, published by Order of Government. By William Forsyth, F.A.S. and F.S.A. Gardener to his Majesty at Kensington and St. James's, Member of the Œconomical Society at Petersburgh, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 380. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

THE hints and practical observations of an experienced horticulturist must be acceptable to all those who are employed by others, or are interested for themselves, in the management of fruit-trees; and to this character Mr. Forsyth has an undoubted title. The profession of a gardener, he tells us, 'has been the employment of his life; and during a long succession of years, it has been the object of his particular study to investigate and discover the latent causes of those various defects and diseases, to which all kinds of trees are more or less subject, and the injuries resulting from them, by obstructing the fertility of fruit-trees, and diminishing the quantity, as well as quality, of timber in forest-trees.' We have formerly had occasion to notice Mr. F.'s attention to this subject, (see M. R. vol. vi. p. 421. N. S.) and to give the recipe for making the composition or plaister which, according to him, possesses such wonder-working properties in healing the wounds of diseased plants and restoring them to perfect sanity; and we have no doubt that, in certain cases, its application may be of great service: but the reader must be apprized that Mr. F. is a great enthusiast respecting the virtues of his composition, and sometimes carries his eulogies on it to an extremity. The law which nature invariably pursues, in the formation of vegetables, protests against those effects which are sometimes attributed to the plaister; and at others it may be doubted whether different causes did not equally contribute to the future vigor and fecundity of the plant. In pruning, Mr. Forsyth may have displayed much skill, and his practice may demand attention: but the plates at the end of his work, exhibiting the antient and present state of the King's fruit-trees in Kensington Garden, have too much the appearance of *stage effect* to be contemplated by the experienced without a smile. To old miserable stumps, scarcely deserving a shred or a nail, were the expectations of his Majesty directed, for fruit for the royal table: but, since Mr. F. has had the management of the gardens, these withered and cankered stumps are metamorphosed into the most beautiful and luxuriant trees, regular in their growth, and without the smallest blemish. That a considerable improvement has been the consequence of his attention and assiduity, we are not disposed to question: but, perhaps, the old trees are represented most disadvantageously, and the new parts most favourably. If this be the case, however, still the most valuable part of the present work is not at all affected. The author's remarks and directions relative to the several subjects of the fruit garden are worthy of regard; and even those which are not new may be said to derive additional importance from his approbation.

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* Such as, *tardity*, *torvity*, *sulcus*, *dimidiated*, *verincose* and *subverincose*, *commissure*, *decussations*, *latibulize*, *subpandiniform*, &c.

Mr. Forsyth first treats of the management of the apricot; and here, after having remarked that it stands in the class of *Icosandria Monogynia*, he observes in a note 'that most of our eatable fruits are arranged under this class, and that it is remarkable that there is *not one poisonous fruit* to be found in it.' To voyagers and travellers, this hint may be useful.—In this chapter also, he says, 'I have a great dislike to autumnal pruning of fruit trees, of all kinds of stone-fruit in particular; for by pruning at that season you seldom fail to bring on the canker; and no fruit trees are more liable to this disease than the apricot.'—He next proceeds to plumbs and peaches, enumerating in distinct chapters the several sorts, and detailing the mode of planting, training, &c.

The soil proper for Peaches is thus described:

> 'Peaches require a lighter soil than Pears and Plums; and a light mellow loam is best. If the natural ground should be a strong brick mould, or rather inclinable to clay, it will be necessary to take out some of it, particularly when you first make the borders, and mix with it some light mould, sand, or old lime rubbish. At first making the borders, you should take out the earth where the trees are to be planted, as before directed for Apricots; and keep working the rest with rotten leaves, or street-dung, and the above mixture; throwing them up, as early as you can spare them, in ridges rough from the spade, which will let the frost and sun penetrate and meliorate the ground.'

A precaution concerning Shreds should not be overlooked:

> 'The shreds that have been used in Summer should be soaked in boiling-hot soapsuds for three or four days, which will kill the eggs of earwigs and other insects, so very destructive to Peaches.'

The chapter on Cherries contains the following useful hint:

> 'From the Black Cherry, which is supposed to be a native of England, are raised, by seeds, the black Coroun, and the small wild Cherry, of which there are two or three varieties, differing in the size and colour of their fruit. I would recommend planting these in parks and pleasure-grounds, as the trees grow to a great size, and have a beautiful appearance. The fruit will be food for birds, and so the means of preserving the finer fruit, in the garden and orchard, from their depredations. The wood also of these trees is very useful for turners and picture-frame makers. Stocks to graft upon are generally raised from the seed of this sort. These trees will thrive in poor land, where scarcely any other sorts will.'

Mr. Forsyth gives a long chapter on Apple trees, and exhibits a numerous list of varieties. He says; 'I would never recommend training of apple-trees as Espaliers; for, by doing so, the air is kept from the quarters of the garden; and by constant pruning and cutting-off all the side-shoots which you cannot tie to the Espaliers, you prevent them from bearing, and, moreover, bring on the canker.'

Seventy two different Pears are enumerated, as commonly propagated in England. Those who have small gardens are commended to plant for

'*Summer Pears.* The Musk Pear; the Green Chissel; Jargonelle; Summer Bergamot; Summer Bonchrêtien.

'*Autumn Pears.* The Orange Bergamot; Autumn Bergamot; Gansel's Bergamot; Brown Beurré; Doyenne, or St. Michael; and Swan's Egg.

'*Winter Pears.* Crasane; Chaumontelle; St. Germain; Colmar; D'Auch; L'Eschasserie; Winter Bonchrêtien, and Bergamot de Pasque.

'The above will furnish a regular succession of fruit.'

The chapter on the Vine contains a list of the different sorts, with directions for propagating, training, and pruning them, &c. Mr. F. advises them to be trained in a serpentine form.

Of Figs, he says;

'The Italians, when they wish to forward the ripening of Figs, drop in a little sweet oil, from a quill, into the eye of the fruit; but care must be taken not to hurt the skin, which would make the Fig burst. This will make a difference at least of a fortnight in the ripening.'—

'When you plant Fig-trees, let them be from twenty to twenty-four feet apart, and train them horizontally, which will render them much more fruitful than when they are trained upright, which causes them to run up in long naked wood.'

Mr. F. also treats distinctly of Quinces and Medlars, but we shall pass over these chapters, and proceed to his remarks on Gooseberries and Currants. We have here a list of the largest new sorts of the former shewn in Lancashire in the summer of 1800, with their colour and weight; among which were a *red* that weighed 17 dwt. 1gr.;—a *yellow* 17dwt. 10 gr.;—a *green* 17 dwt. and a *white* 17 dwt. 2 gr. On the attempts to improve and increase the gooseberries, this general remark is made:

'The Catalogues of the Gardeners of Manchester and its neighbourhood now contain between four and five hundred sorts or varieties; but some are so near each other as hardly to be distinguished. By mixing up a rich soil to plant those in which have been raised from seed, and by watering, shading, and thinning the fruit, they have grown to a size much larger than any that had ever been seen in this country. They have made it their principal study to improve this valuable fruit, and have given great encouragement, by establishing societies for distributing prizes annually to those who raise the largest and finest new sorts. But it must be allowed, that some of the largest are much thicker in the skin, and not so well flavoured as some of the old sorts.'

Of Currants, it is added

'By no means propagate them from suckers, as they never grow handsome, and are very liable to throw out a great many suckers.

'In many gardens there still remains a small sort of red and white currant not worth cultivating; I would therefore advise those who have any of them in their gardens to root them up, and plant, in their room, the large Red and White Dutch, the long-bunched red, and Champagne large Pale Red. Currants may be planted out in the same manner as Gooseberries, either in quarters or single rows round the edges of quarters.'

Distinct chapters are devoted to the Raspberry, Barberry, Mulberry, Service, and Almond. In treating on the Filbert and Hazle-nut, Mr. F. observes that 'the Barcelona nut-tree is rather scarce in England, but it is well worth cultivating; it is a distinct species, and grows to a fine timber tree.'

The enumeration of fruits is terminated by chapters on the Chesnut and Walnut; in the latter of which, the author introduces a remark destructive of the old conundrum about a woman and a walnut-tree; since, however it may sometimes succeed with the former, he does not allow that the latter is ever benefited by *thrashing*.

After his remarks on the several kinds of fruit trees, Mr. F. proceeds to discuss the principles of grafting and budding, and to give practical directions; and this part is succeeded by a chapter which treats of the situation, size, soil, and form of a garden, &c. Among many useful hints, gentlemen who make large kitchen gardens ought not to overlook the following: 'When a garden is planted and finished, it will be found very convenient to have a plan of it, with the name of each tree inserted in its proper place. This I had done when the new slips were laid out in Kensington-gardens about ten or eleven years ago, and have found it of great service.'

From the chapter on the Orchard, these notices merit attention:

> 'In selecting your Pears and Apples, especially the latter, be careful to procure a proper assortment for the supply of your table during the whole year: a very few of the *Summer* sorts will suffice; more of the *Autumn*, and still more of the *Winter* will be required; as upon this last you must chiefly depend for supply from the month of January to July.'—
>
> 'The situation of an orchard should be rather elevated than low; on a gentle declivity; and open to the South and South East, to give free admission to the air and rays of the sun (to dry up the damps and disperse the fogs), which will render the trees healthy, and give a finer flavour to the fruit. An orchard should also be well sheltered from the East, North, and Westerly winds, by plantations, if not naturally sheltered by rising grounds.'—
>
> 'Procure your trees from a soil nearly similar to, or rather worse than that where you intend to plant them; for trees transplanted from a rich soil to a poorer never thrive well, but if from a poor to a richer soil, they will generally succeed.'—

'Burning of rotten wood, weeds, potatoe haulm, wet straw, &c. on the windward side of the trees when they are in blossom, will be found a good preservative from blights, caterpillars, &c.

'I would recommend washing the trees annually, in the month of February or March, with the following mixture, which will destroy the eggs of insects, and prevent moss from growing on the trunks and branches: it will also help to nourish the tree, keeping the bark fine and healthy; and will have the same effect on it as a top dressing has upon grass land.

'Mix fresh cow-dung with urine and soap-suds, and with this mixture wash over the stems and branches of the trees, as a white-washer would wash the ceiling or walls of a room; taking care to cut off all the cankery parts, and to scrape off all the moss, before you lay the mixture on.'

For the shelves of the fruit-room, Mr. F. recommends white in preference to yellow deal.

Three chapters are dedicated to the Canker and Gum, the Mildew, Honey-dew, and Blights,—and the different insects which infest fruit-trees. The author considers blights as being occasioned by dry easterly winds, hot sun-shine succeeded by sharp frosts, and fire-blasts. He thus mentions an insect, which has of late infested and greatly injured the apple trees near the metropolis:

'A very destructive species of the coccus tribe has lately done incredible damage to the Apple-trees in the nurseries and gardens in the neighbourhood of London. Some Nurserymen have lost several thousand Apple-trees in one year. These insects attach themselves to the bark by their suckers, and, by feeding on the juices of the tree, rob it of its nourishment. Such trees as are infested with them have a sickly appearance. I am happy, however, in being able to say, that I have nearly extirpated them from his Majesty's gardens at Kensington; but, as our neighbours do not pay the same attention to their trees as we do to ours, the insects frequently emigrate to us; this obliges me to be very attentive to their first appearance; and, as I take the earliest opportunity of destroying them, the trees suffer very little from their depredations.

'These insects make their nests generally where branches have been cut off, or in hollow places, where the canker has eaten holes in the trees. Their first appearance is like a white down; on touching, or rubbing them, they tinge the fingers of a crimson colour, like cochineal. If suffered to remain long on trees, they take wing, like aphides. The method that I have followed for these ten years to destroy them is as follows:

'I rub the places where their nests are with an old brush, such as plasterers use, till they are all cleaned off; and if the part be canker-eaten, I cut it clean out with a knife or chisel: I then take of soap-suds and urine equal parts, and with this I wash the wound and the bark all round it; and with a brush apply the Composition mixed with wood-ashes and the powder of burnt bones, covering the wound all over with it. Afterwards I shake some of the powder of wood-ashes and burnt bones, mixed with an eighth part of unslaked lime finely powdered and sifted, over the hollows, or where knobs have been cut off.'

To this treatise are subjoined the observations, enlarged, on the diseases, &c. of fruit and forest trees, of which we formerly gave some account. Here the author endeavours to substantiate the utility of his composition, not only by his own detailed experience, but by adducing the respectable testimonies of others. They prove at least that Mr. Forsyth is a good gardener, and that the removal of the decayed and wounded parts of plants is highly beneficial to them.

By gentlemen who are curious in fruit-trees, the price of this volume will not be regarded: but since much of the matter is not new, and since the information of the public at large ought to be consulted in works of this nature, a cheaper edition should at the same time have been prepared.—There are thirteen copper-plates, but all that is necessary may be included in one.

ART. III. *Some doubts relative to the Efficacy of Mr. Forsyth's Plaister in filling up the Holes in Trees*, &c. ascribed to it by Dr. Anderson and Mr. Forsyth. In a Letter to Dr. Anderson from Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq. 4to. 1s. White.

As Reviewers frequently assume and exercise the privilege of doubting, they cannot with propriety refuse it to philosophers. Indeed, by the very motto of the Royal Society, (*Nullius in verba*, &c.) all who belong to this class are cautioned against credulity, and required diligently to examine before they assent. Mr. Knight is an ingenious country gentleman, and an investigating philosopher; in whose mind some of the statements given respecting the utility of Mr. Forsyth's Plaister could not fail to excite suspicion of accuracy, which he was perfectly at liberty to express to the public. We are sorry, however, that this has not been done with philosophical temper, and that there appears some degree of irritation and animosity against Dr. Anderson and Mr. Forsyth; the former of whom is not only accused of being actuated by motives of private interest in defending the latter, (see No. 37. of Dr. A.'s *Recreations*) but is also insinuated to be the concealed writer and sharer in the profits of Mr. Forsyth's book. Of this fact, no evidence is produced, and with it we have no concern; nor shall we enter into the account of Mr. Knight's interview with Mr. F. in Kensington Garden. To the main point at issue, we shall immediately apply ourselves.

Here it is obvious to observe that a plaister, or pigment, composed of cow-dung, lime, and wood-ashes, may be useful in excluding the air from the wounds of plants, and in preventing them from bleeding: but it cannot possess properties capable of changing the law of vegetation. When, therefore, it is represented as restoring the internal wood of a tree which has decayed, and as making new wood adhere to old, we may reasonably doubt the accuracy of the observer or of the relater, or both; and with Mr. K. we must question its utility, to the extent stated in Mr. F.'s book. Without, however, wishing to be implicated in this controversy, we shall transcribe two or three observations of the latter-writer in his own words:

> 'You assert, that I could not fail to observe both plumb and cherry-trees in that garden, which had been in such a state of decay as to have been all rotted away except about an inch of bark, restored to the greatest degree of health and vigour. I really did not see these; and you must allow me to say you did not see them; and that Mr. Forsyth never could succeed in such an experiment, for the following obvious reasons.—Every bud, as I amongst others have proved by very numerous experiments, draws its whole nutriment from the wood; and therefore, before the wood could have rotted entirely away, as you assert it to have done, all the buds must have been many years dead. In inventing discoveries of every kind, it is prudent to keep within the limits of possibility.'—
>
> 'Sir, I have no pecuniary interest to serve; I have, I hope and believe, a character as a man of honour and veracity to lose; and I speak from long and attentive observation, and some knowledge of the nature of vegetation, and assert, in the face of the public, that new and old wood, whenever cut, broken or decayed, never did unite in any one instance in any English tree; that a wound in the wood of such a tree never was healed, though it becomes covered by the annual layers of succeeding years; and I further assert that Mr. Forsyth never filled up any tree, in which the old and new wood united with, or were not readily discoverable from, each other. You will perhaps tell me that the decision of the gentlemen deputed by the House of Commons disproves my assertions. I have great respect for those gentlemen, but I would rather take their opinions on some other subjects than on the growth and formation of timber; and the acquirement of a parliamentary reward by Mr. Forsyth affords a much better proof that he was paid for an important discovery, than that he made one.'

This is plain speaking, and there may be some truth in it: but is it not *nimis acer?* If Mr. Knight has not treated Dr. A. and Mr. F. with politeness, it may still be advisable to weigh the force of his judicious and philosophical strictures.

Art. IV. *Oriental Dialogues*: containing the Conversations of Eugenius and Alciphron on the Spirit and Beauties of the Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews. Selected from the German Dialogues and Dissertations of the celebrated Herder. 8vo. pp. 390. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

GERMAN theologues have bestowed peculiar attention on the Hebrew Scriptures, and have attempted to remove the difficulties which embarrass them with a bold and adventurous hand. Divines in general, however, have shewn a strange kind of timidity in this important province of sacred criticism; and we should therefore be desirous of encouraging rather than of suppressing ingenious and spirited investigations, in the persuasion that the result will be the elucidation of divine truth. Even if, by encouraging free and fearless inquiry, we should be accessory to the production of much wild and visionary interpretation; yet, if one ray of additional light be thrown on the subject, the religious world will have no reason for complaint.

The author of the dialogues before us is one of those who is known to have stepped out of the track of ordinary interpretation; and in the 80th vol. of our Review, p. 642, in noticing the original work, we gave a long account of his singular comments. To this article the present editor and translator not only refers the reader, but he has transcribed the character which we there gave of Herder, as a poetical and philosophical rather than a theological critic. He may truly indeed be denominated a *poetical* critic; since he makes the historical books of the Old Testament to be poetical, speaks of *Nature-Poetry*; of the *poetry of Paradise*, of the *poetry of Heaven and Earth*, and of *Federal poetry*; and his comments and illustrations proceed on the principle (perhaps not a very erroneous one) that the historical facts of the Old Testament, being poetically related, must be interpreted according to the genius and mode of expression peculiar to the Oriental Muse. Assuming this datum, he renders the Mosaic history of the paradisaical state, of the removal of our first parents from it, of the cherubim and their flaming swords, &c. more plain and intelligible than it is commonly represented. According to him, these facts, separated from their poetical embellishments, have little in them that is either very striking or very incredible. Take, for example, the explanation of the cherubim preventing the return of the exiled pair to the Garden of Eden:

> 'In its origin it was certainly as plain a story, as the account we have of Paradise itself. The first parents of the human race were banished from thence; and there was, probably, a high mountain between them and their first happy residence. This mountain may have been full of animal-forms, of which the wearied travellers who

attempted to pass over it may have given terrifying accounts. Thunder-clouds may have been frequently suspended over the summit of the mountain, and subterraneous fires may, from time to time, have issued from its bowels; and these irruptions might naturally enough explain the origin of the *flaming sword* which waved in different directions before the entrance of Paradise. In short, all these probable or possible circumstances, combined with the successive relations of travellers, might easily terminate in a marvellous animal of fabulous composition. Nor would it be unreasonable even to suppose, that the two unhappy exiles from Paradise, when they looked behind them towards the peaceful region from which they had been banished, might perceive wandering meteors and wild beasts, which made deep impressions on their gloomy imagination. These impressions may have been communicated to their descendants, and being afterwards renewed by the sight of the mountain, and associated with the reports of pilgrims, and the descriptions of poets, may have given rise to the fanciful creation of a wonderful being or figure, designed to represent the Divine Power and Majesty. However this may have been, it is totally absurd to imagine that Adam and Eve were driven out of Paradise by a *Cherub*, as painters have delineated, and poets have sung the dismal story.'

The 18th psalm is explained to be only a picturesque and mythological description of thunder. It is observed that, as the Hebrew poetry was intended to be the great bulwark against idolatry, no theism is so pure as that which is displayed in the hymns of the Old Testament; in which all the objects of the universe, even the sun and the moon "when they walk in their brightness," are represented, not as objects of adoration, but as the *creatures* and *servants* of Jehovah; and in which our attention is uniformly fixed on his *over-ruling Providence*.

A considerable portion of this volume is occupied by discussions on the book of Job: but, as we have before stated M. Herder's opinions respecting the character and country of Job, and the author, nature, and design of the poem, we shall not here enlarge on them.

The translation of Enoch is thus explained:

'I hope you do not consider this passage, which was probably the fragment of an old song, as a narration of the resurrection and ascension of Enoch. It is the soft voice or echo, which poetical fancy sends from the grave of some person who had died in early youth, and had not arrived at the advanced age of his brethren and parents. As children have no idea of another world, their questioning curiosity about their departed friends was frequently satisfied by such answers as these, "Your brother is with God—God took him away so soon because he loved him, on account of his virtue." The primitive world was in such a state of simplicity and infancy, that it was necessary to speak in this manner.'

In the subsequent dialogues, M. Herder comments on the deluge, on the ark, on the rain-bow, on the tower of Babel, on the character of Nimrod the *man-hunter*, on Noah's intoxication and Ham's transgression, on Abraham's conduct in Egypt, on Jacob's contest with *Elohim*, on his ladder, &c. &c.; and the whole concludes with the following general view of the nature of Hebrew poetry:

'A *pastoral* bucolical poetry it certainly is, a *federal* poetry also; that is, a poetry founded, if I may use such an expression, on a family compact with God. Finally, it is the poetry of Canaan, considered as a land of dilection and promise. Under these points of view, you must read and consider it, if you wish to enter truly into its spirit.'

M. Herder neither asserts nor denies the inspiration of the books of the O. T. Though it is important to decide on this subject, he cautiously avoids it, and contents himself with considering these Scriptures as very antient Eastern compositions, which cannot be understood without ascertaining the precise meaning of the terms and figures of speech employed in Oriental Poetry.

Art. V. *A Supplement to Johnson's English Dictionary:* of which the palpable Errors are attempted to be rectified, and its material Omissions supplied. By George Mason, Author of the Glossary of Hoccleve, and of an Essay on Design in Gardening. (With a separate Appendix.) 4to. 16s. Boards. White. 1801.

It was remarked by Johnson himself that "Dictionaries are like watches, the worst are better than none, and the best cannot be expected to go quite true." He was fully aware that many errors and omissions would be discovered in his own work, though he may still have thought that its imperfections were fewer than they really are. The plan of his Dictionary is admirable, in furnishing a mass of authorities by which the sense and acceptation of words may be ascertained: but the list of words is very defective, and the derivations and explanations are often incorrect. In forming the mere vocabulary, he is known to have made great use of the English part of Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary; and therefore terms omitted by Ainsworth are frequently deficient also in Johnson. Though, however, in this respect he placed too much reliance on an insufficient guide, we must do justice to his supreme talents and uncommon industry, and must object to those degrading terms which Mr. Mason employs. What would the Lexicographer himself have said to the man who not only accused him of 'a muddiness of intellect,' but who also asserted that

this

this muddiness 'sadly besmears and defaces almost every page of the composition?' He would probably have replied to the charge, if made in person, by throwing the folio at the head of his antagonist. Mr. Mason allows, however, that the *plan* of the Dictionary is really commendable; and that, as far as that plan has been duly completed, the work is in high estimation: adding, 'were not the writer of the following sheets fully convinced of this, he must of consequence regard his own labour as absolutely useless.'

That the Dictionary of Johnson is neither unworthy nor unsusceptible of a Supplement, all will agree; and we could wish that, whenever new editions of it are printed, care were taken to improve it by applying to some of our most learned men for assistance; in order that we may by degrees obtain such a complete vocabulary of the language, together with adequate explanations, as shall be honourable to the nation. Many additions and many corrections must be inserted, before such a work can be tolerably complete; and perhaps many men must be employed. We do not make this remark in depreciation of the merit of Mr. Mason's undertaking: on the contrary, we feel obliged to him for his labours; and when the contents of the pages before us shall be incorporated with Johnson, the Dictionary of that great writer will certainly be improved, though much will yet remain to be done.

In the preface to this volume, it is observed that

> 'The compiler of this Supplement does not undertake to correct *all* the mistakes in Johnson. That lexicographer's etymologies are deservedly reckoned the most erroneous part of his Dictionary; yet this portion of it has not here undergone a *thorough* examination. Learning of such kind is rather matter of curiosity, than of common utility; nor has the present writer sufficient knowlege of the various early languages, to enable him to carry etymological criticism to its greatest possible extent. There are also many of Johnson's other observations highly ridiculous, which it has not been thought requisite to animadvert upon, as they are sufficiently glaring to expose themselves.
>
> 'The *supplial of omissions*, now attempted, is not confined merely to the words, or senses of words, unnoted by Johnson, but takes in also the exemplification of those, that stand unexemplified in the principal Dictionary. Much shorter of completion, in the eye of the writer, is the latter of these attempts than the former. To execute it fully appears almost impossible. Where should one look for examples of such *pedantic inharmonieties*, as *deterioration*, or *odontalgic*? And when (as is frequently the case) different meanings assigned to the same word are plainly *tautologous*, what additional illustration can they require?'

Here a word which does not occur in Johnson's work is employed (*supplial*); and, on turning to the Supplement we find that Warburton is quoted as the authority for its use. Why *deterioration* should be thought more pedantic than *supplial*, we know not. It is certainly a very expressive word, and much wanted in the language, to denote *the act of growing or becoming worse.*

Spenser, though not so much out of date as Chaucer, is certainly obsolete; and therefore it is unnecessary to exhaust the glossaries of his works, in order to make a complete Dictionary of the English language. This part of Mr. Mason's labour might, in our opinion, have been curtailed.

Johnson says—" As my design was a Dictionary common or appellative, I have omitted all words which have relation to proper names; such as *Arian*, *Socinian*, *Calvinist*, *Benedictine*, *Mahometan*; but have retained those of a more general nature, as Heathen, Pagan." On this rule, the Supplementalist very properly observes:

> ' If these *omitted* words had no other signification than what belongs to a mere adjective possessive of the person whose proper name they are derived from, there might be some reason in this distinction. But take only the word *Benedictine*: how seldom is it, that any thing written or said of these friars has the least connection with their founder, *Benedict*? In conformity too to Johnson's own statement of his rule of selection, it might be asked, what proper names have *Anabaptist* and *Quaker* relation to, that they should also be left out of his *common* Dictionary? This very circumstance may serve to shew the impropriety of establishing such a rule, which has accordingly been here rejected; and the number of omissions it occasioned has been one considerable source for augmenting this Supplement.'

Though, however, Mr. Mason professes to give the names of religious sects, we look in vain for the word *Unitarian* in the Supplement, and in his Appendix.

Some of Johnson's explanations have often been adduced as instances of the *ignotum per ignotius*; of which the word *network* affords a singular specimen. These peculiarities excite a smile, but do not mislead. Others are not so harmless. To the adjective *Cathedral*, he assigns, in the third instance, the meaning of *antique*, *venerable*, *old*, quoting this line from Pope as his authority.

" Here aged trees *cathedral* walks compose:"

but in this place, the word *cathedral* signifies walks formed by the branches of trees, so as to resemble the gothic arches in a cathedral church.

A person who has not attentively turned over the pages of Johnson can scarcely fail to express some astonishment, when the omissions are enumerated. He would not expect to find *Aeronaut*, nor *Kangaroo*, any more than *Caloric* or *Hydrogene*: but he will be surprized to learn that he would seek in vain for such common words as these—*Accompanyment*—*Accountableness*—*Accredited*—*Acid. n.*—*Acrid*—*Adduce*—*Adroitly*—*Allspice*—*Angling*—*Antichrist*—*Appreciate*—*Approximate. v.*—*Assign. n.*—*Authoress*—*Autograph*—*Bailment*—*Baronial*—*Bedroom*—*Bickering*—*Bombastic*—*Brogues*—*Calcareous*—*Canabin*—*Cannibalism*—*Caricatura*—*Chatty*—*Classification*—*Cotillon*—*Cowled*—*Critite*—*Cris-Cross-Row*—*Dado*—*Data*—*Dentist*—*Derange*—*Displanting*—*Dryad*—*Duskiness*—*Effeminately*—*Emigrant*—*Epaulette*—*Fanatical*—*Festal*—*Feud* (allotment of land)—*Fidget, n.*—*Finishing*—*Frill, n.*—*Funk, v.*—*Glossarist*—*Gothicism*—*Grog*—*Groveller*—*Gully*—*Hackney, adj.*—*Handmaiden*—*Hankering*—*Haricot*—*Hempseed*—*Heraldic*—*Hobbyhorse*—*Hunting*—*Hurry-scurry*—*Jacobite* and *Jacobitism* (though *Whig* and *Whigism* are inserted in their proper places)—*Inaptitude*—*Insufficient*—(N. B. Johnson uses this word to explain another, and yet affords it no place of its own)—*Inelegantly*—*Ink-stand*—*Insanity* (this common word happens to be omitted by Ainsworth, and is consequently omitted by Johnson)—*Insecurely*—*Intensity*—*Interference*—*Intolerance*—*Landau*—*Letters-Patent*—*Liableness*—*Mahogany*[*]—*Menagerie*—*Metaphysician*—*Nascent*—*Nonsuit, n.*—*Opinionated*—*Optimism* (Johnson has *Optimity*, a word quite out of use)—*Patriotic*—*Peripatetic*—*In Petto*—*Pictorial*—*Picturesque*—*Pin-money*—*Postchaise*—*Predilection*—*Probate* (Johnson however has *Probat*, of which Probate is a corruption, though in general use; yet we have not corrupted *Affidavit* and *Latitat* by a similar *e* final)—*Punt*—*Reef, n.*—*Reef, v.*—*Relationship*—*Republication*—*Rhythm*—*Saloon*—*Salvage*—*Sorb*—*Tiller* (a technical term with woodmen and farmers)—*Toryism*—*Valetudinarian, n.*—*Venue*—*Unwell*—*Wrongness*—*Yew-tree*—*Zig-zag*, and many more.

When words in Johnson are without authorities to attest their signification, Mr. M. endeavours to supply them: but he does not always give us the proper quotation. Thus, under the word *terrene*, he refers us to Somerville, when he should have directed us to Milton, P. L. b. vi. v. 78.

"——tenfold the length of this *terrene*;"

and though he sometimes corrects Dr. Johnson's mistakes, as under the articles *patriot*, *re-butter*, &c. &c. he falls into many others. *Ways and Means* he defines to be 'the title of a particular committee of the House of Commons,' instead of the proposed mode of supplying the stated wants of the state, or the manner in which the money required by the Government is to be raised from the people. It is more surprizing, however, that such philologists as Johnson and the author of this Supplement should both have omitted the word *Epicene*, with which the grammar supplies them, than that both should occasionally have erred in their explanations.*

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[*] Mr. Mason interprets this to be 'a wood brought from some of the West India islands;' he should have added, and from the Spanish Main.

Many words here occur which are not to be charged on the Great Lexicographer as omissions, because they have come into use since his time, such as *Jacobinism—Souchong—Tattow—Telegraph*, &c. yet they ought to form a part of the present Dictionary of our language. We here also find *Eyott*, a little island, which is commonly written and pronounced *Ayte*. Blackstone is the authority cited, and the passage is "It seems just, that the *eyotts* or little islands arising in any part of the river, shall be the property of him who owneth the piscary and the soil."

On the whole, the language is under considerable obligations to Mr. Mason for the task which he has performed; and we hope that, in the future editions of Johnson's Dictionary, all proper use will be made of his labours.

ART. VI. *History of the Rise and Progress of the Naval Power of England*, interspersed with various important Notices relative to the French Marine: to which are added, Observations on the principal Articles of the Navigation Act. Illustrated by a variety of interesting Notes. Translated from an original Work in French. By Thomas Evanson White. 8vo. pp. 420. 7s. 6d. Boards. Jordan. 1802.

THE original of this work was published at Yverdun in Switzerland, in 1783, under the title of *l'Histoire des Progrès de la puissance Navale de l'Angleterre;* and this circumstance ought properly to have appeared in the title-page. The translator observes that the Naval Power of England is a consideration of such vital importance, that whatever is connected with the subject must naturally prove interesting to the majority of British readers; and being also fully persuaded of the truth of the maxim, that it is often serviceable to know what our adversaries say of us, he was induced to undertake and to offer to the public the present translation. The historical part of the work is divided into four books; and it is, as Mr. White remarks, in particular parts a condensed memoir, and in others only a general outline.

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* Among others, the following words omitted by Johnson are not supplied by Mr. Mason. *Airy*, (a nest of hawks and other birds of prey) *Cameo, Crumpet, Donkey*, (a young Ass) *Flapper*, (a young wild Duck) *Gerkin* (a small Cucumber,) *Muffin, Surf* (the breaking of the sea on the shore,) &c. &c. Both works are extremely deficient in terms used at sea.

The anonymous author has made his commencement so early as the reign of *Offa*, and has even introduced his narrative by a short summary of anterior events; of which, indeed, very little can be said with any degree of certainty. Instances of the sovereignty of the ocean being claimed by the British, and of the salute being exacted from foreign vessels, occur very early. King Edgar assumed the title of 'Emperor and Lord of all the Kings of the Ocean;' and King John, elated by a naval victory, issued an ordinance, by which all vessels sailing on the seas were required to lower their flags at the command of the King's Lieutenant or Admiral.

The first book carries the history as far as the end of Mary's reign; and when we consider its brevity, we may allow that it is written with clearness and connection. To Henry VII. the author ascribes the glory of 'laying the foundation of the Naval Power of his country, by turning the attention of his subjects to their *native* riches, the Wool, which, at that time, was exclusively manufactured by the Flemings, who purchased it at a very low price. He annihilated this source of their wealth, by prohibiting an exportation which was highly prejudicial to his own subjects. Edward III. had projected a similar regulation, but being pressed by the calls of ambition, he violated his own edicts *, by which it was rendered useless.'

The second book commences with the accession of Queen Elizabeth. To Henry VII. we have just stated, has been ascribed the foundation of our maritime greatness: but the beginning of the superstructure is dated in the reign of Elizabeth. After Mary,

> 'A Princess more worthy succeeded, who immediately turned her attention to repair the evils caused by the prodigality of her father, Henry VIII. This she effected by economy alone, and without oppressing her subjects by a destructive system of finance; her favourite maxim, in these affairs, was, that money was better, placed in the pockets of her people, than in her own Exchequer.
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> 'When Sovereigns are economical, their subjects are generous; then it is, that patriotism, the most powerful and active of all motives, gratuitously exerts itself. Never, under any reign, were seen such sacrifices of private interest; or exertions, either to defend, or

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'* Having received, as a free gift, from the Laity, the moiety of their wool, and the whole of that of the Clergy; he sold to foreigners, through the agency of the Earls of Northampton and Suffolk, 10,000 packs, for the sum of 400,000 livres sterling.'

to make the state respected; in attempting new discoveries, or extending the commerce of the nation.'

After having taken notice of the atchievements of Cavendish, Drake, Raleigh, Forbisher, and others of illustrious memory, the author remarks 'with what alacrity numerous vessels were equipped by almost every town in the kingdom, when it was menaced with invasion by the Spaniards.' The actions of the gallant men here named must have greatly animated the exertions of the English against the Spanish Invasion, and, with the overthrow of their *Armada*, gave birth to that zeal and spirit for Maritime enterprizes in the British nation, which has never since subsided, and at this time exists in unexampled vigour.

In the course of the work, the author has inserted narratives of most of the remarkable naval actions which have been fought within the period of his history: viz. down to the middle of the 18th century. In those which are distant from the time at which he wrote, he has shewn much liberality of sentiment: but in those of more recent date, the *Esprit de la Nation* is not so well restrained. Of such partiality, however, we do not complain, though in the present instance it is directed against this country: the English likewise have theirs; and what nation has it not?

At the conclusion of the history, at the epoch of the American Revolution, the author makes the following observation:

'Possessing, without interruption, an immense and fertile country, [the American provinces] doubling its population every twenty years, to what a degree of power might not England have arisen; and what a counterpoise of strength would not have been required in opposition to it? Would not the independance, even of the whole world, have been threatened? France, then, in declaring for the Anglo-Americans, after the re-establishment of their marine, consulted as much the general welfare, as her own particular safety. "People of Europe, it is time that you renounce those sentiments of jealousy which have so long animated you against this power; second her efforts. The sceptre of the main wavers in the hand of her rival; do not suffer it to be firmly grasped again; the moment is arrived when the commerce of the two hemispheres may be set free; let it not be lost; resume all your rights; fortune calls, and your interest requires you to follow her!"'

The true meaning of this concluding address seems to be; "People of Europe, assist France to humble her rival, that there may be only one great nation in Europe." We are to suppose the inference, that France, when there shall be no power capable of controlling her, will be all condescension and justice!

Frequent attacks are made by the author on the character of that able statesman, Lord Chatham. He says, 'Men always sacrifice future security to present aggrandizement: England, by seeking to reduce her enemies too low, in the treaty of Paris, rendered the peace of very short duration. She did not reflect, that by too widely extending her possessions, the fabric of her power must be undermined, or that it would, ere long, be overthrown, by the efforts of despotism. Lord Chatham, the same Mr. Pitt, the implacable enemy of France, so adverse to the peace made after his resignation, ventured to predict, that, under the circumstances of the case, *the cession of Canada would, eventually, occasion the loss of America to England*, and, consequently, a considerable portion of her commerce, as well as her maritime ascendency. This natural consequence, of the first part of his prediction, escaped his lips unawares, or doubtless he would have concealed it. But is it not still remembered, that he often boasted of having subdued *Canada on the plains of Germany*, and that he had strongly insisted, in the first overtures of peace, upon the entire abandonment of that country on the part of France. What a change of principles! either in the former case they were false, or his conduct in the administration had been injurious to his country, and was, what the event but too well proved.

'Never was a more fatal gift, than that which the French made to their rivals, in the treaty of Paris. "Canada," said a judicious English writer, during the last war, "was, in effect, the security for our colonies [*], why then do our ministers endeavonr to subdue it?" That province being no longer an object of terror to these colonies, from the moment it passed under the dominion of the mother-country, they ceased to regard the French as enemies when they were no longer their neighbours, and had no further occasion of British fleets and armies to guard against them.'

After the history, we find observations on the Navigation Act, many of which are sensible, and appear to be the result of much consideration: though, by some persons, it will be thought that the writer is too indulgent to the general principles on which that act was framed. He disapproves their application to the American colonies.

The Appendix contains a list of the ships composing the English Navy at the death of Queen Elizabeth; and a Table shewing the Naval forces of Great Britain at different periods, from the accession of King William III. to the year 1777: also some curious documents, &c. to which reference is made in the work.

'[*] See *Lettres du Marquis de Montcalm;* falsely attributed to this general. They were the production of an Englishman of quality, who wrote them in 1757, whilst he was serving against the French in Canada. They remained a long time in manuscript, and were not published till 1777, and then with several alterations. It is the first work of the time, in which the actual revolution of America was foretold in a firm tone, and its causes clearly set forth.'

The style of this production is animated; the reflections, allowing for some partialities, are in general natural; and among the faults which may be found with the narrative, that of deficiency in entertainment will not be included. The notes of the translator are frequently valuable additions, and in many instances administer proper correctives.

ART. VII. *Poems.* By George Dyer. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

WE had prepared, some time ago, an account of Mr. Dyer's former edition of his poems in one volume 8vo., but, on hearing of this improved and enlarged collection, we suspended our remarks, and have taken up the subject *de novo.*

The work is introduced by a dissertation on lyric poetry, in which the author has characterized the most celebrated writers of this class, antient and modern. His observations are generally sensible and just: but they display little of either force or novelty of thought; and the style, which seldom rises above mediocrity, occasionally sinks below it. There are, however, readers who will form a more favourable opinion of Mr. Dyer's dissertation, and who will thankfully receive the various information which it contains. Those who are unacquainted with the first models of lyric poetry, in the original languages, must benefit by learning the impression with which they are read by others; and they will be amply gratified in the present instance: but the essay would have afforded us greater satisfaction, if the author had avoided those aukward inversions and obsolete phrases, which in some places give to it the air of an old sermon of the 17th century. We shall present a specimen of Mr. D.'s prose, which is by no means unfavourable:

'This extreme fastidiousness, of which we have been speaking, is to be exercised on every branch of lyric poetry. For the ode makes its lighter and more graceful excursions, no less than its more aspiring and majestic flights. It displays no less variety in its subject and spirit, that in its language and measures. The tender balad, the sprightly song, and even the humourous tale, possess the character of lyric poetry, no less than compositions of higher pretension, as to subject, and of more magnificent appearance, as to structure. Each, too, requires the air of novelty, the grace of variety; each must have the correctness of ease, and the charm of elegance. The sentiment, likewise, must be striking, yet unaffected; the versification easy, yet melodious; and, if the poet moralizes, he must distinguish dignity of sentiment, from the abstruseness of metaphysics, and a profundity of argumentation.

'A great many more English writers of lyrics might be mentioned, did I intend to give a complete list; such as Herbert, Drummond, Norris, Watts, and others. But to enumerate this host of writers is by no means my intention, many of whom are of that trifling, or of that unharmonious and metaphysical turn, as to have obtained no considerable character, and as, to declare the truth, to have furnished some objections to our English lyrics. As to Drummond, indeed, he possessed much poetry; but he is rather to be considered as a writer of sonnets than of lyric poetry in general; though, as a poet, he deserves to be better known. Watts had much genius, and many of his little pieces possess the fervour and boldness of true poetry. But his Lyric Poems were written, many of them, at a period when his judgment had not arrived at its full strength, or, at least, to use Watts's own language, when he did not make poetry the business of his life. So that we expect not to see the whole strength of a genius, that was certainly uncommon. Some of his liveliest pieces want stripping of glitter; and his boldest flights often sink into the Bathos.

'I add, in passing, that Dr. Johnson, in his attempts at lyric poetry, has, in my opinion, been very unsuccessful. The sentiments are but common; his measures are neither dignified nor sprightly; his language is neither stately nor animated. His imitations of Juvenal's Satires are, allowedly, excellent: but his five rural odes are indifferent manufactures: they contain no originality of thought or gracefulness of diction; and will, of themselves shew the grounds of Johnson's insensibility to the sublimity of Gray.'

This essay is followed by several lyric pieces, from which we select the following sonnet:

'Sweet Maid! when sickness pales that angel-face,
Like the rude worm that riots on the rose,
Still goodness in thy gentle bosom glows,
And beauty will not leave her favourite place.
Still round thy languid eye will steal a smile,
As underneath a cloud the sun-beams play,
Kind harbingers of more resplendent day,
Though the full orb conceal himself awhile.
But ah! since Melancholy's baleful hand
Vile poppy-dews hath o'er thy temples spred,
And Death, methinks, looks busy round that bed,
All-hopeless Pity near shall take her stand:
Oh! she shall spare for thee her softest sigh:
For thou wast Pity's child, the friend of Misery.'

An Essay on Elegiac Poetry contains fewer observations on its subject, than might have been expected from the title. — Some good lines, addressed to an eminent painter, occur in this department of the work, though we can scarcely tell why they have been classed among the elegies.—The poems dedicated to the memory of 'George Morgan, and Robert Robinson,'

son,' will not perhaps excite much interest beyond the respective circles of their associates.

The second volume opens with an Essay on Representative Poetry; that is, narrative, dramatic, and mixed poetry. After having mentioned the several divisions of poetical composition, established by the best critics, the author informs us that he means to speak chiefly of the ode. The essay turns, however, principally, on the subject of poetical imitation.—Among the pieces which follow this composition we have distinguished the following:

' *Bürger; or Winter defeated.*

' See! where stern Winter's icy hand
Disrobes the poplar tree!
The fields, their May-clothes lost, all naked stand.
Their forms of red, white, blue, no more I see,
Buried in snows they sleep, and live no more for me.

' Yet flowrets sweet, shall I for you
The song of grief indite,
When I my lovely loving charmer view,
In more than all your vernal beauty bright,
With forehead white, red lip, and eyes of azure light?

' Ye blackbirds, that once cheer'd the vale,
Ye nightingales, that charm'd the grove,
How vainly should your notes my ear assail,
For silver-voic'd is she, the girl I love,
And sweet her breath, as gales o'er hyacinth beds that rove.

' When of her lips I taste the bliss,
Full happiness I seem to meet;
More dear to me the honey-breathing kiss,
Than mulberry fragrant, or than cherry sweet:
What more then can I ask; in her, fair spring I greet?

. These lines are, probably rather a paraphrase, than a translation, from Bürger. The ode was read to me into prose by a friend, and I put it, mostly memoritèr, into metre.'

We beg leave also to introduce these pleasing lines to our readers:

' *Sappho; or the Resolve.*

' Yes, I have lov'd: yet often have I said,
Love in this breast shall never revel more;
But I will listen to wild ocean's roar,
Or, like some out-cast solitary shade,
Will cling upon the howlings of the wind,
Till I grow deaf and lifeless, cold and blind.
But, ah! enchantress, cease the tender lay,
Nor tune thy lyre to notes, thus softly slow;
Those eyes—oh take those melting eyes away!
Nor let those lips with honey'd sweets o'erflow;—

Nor let meek Pity pale that lovely cheek,
  Nor weep, as wretches their long-sufferings speak.
With forms so fair endued, oh! Venus, why
  Are Lesbian maids, or with such weakness I?
Do Lesbian damsels touch the melting lyre?
  My lyre is mute; and I in silence gaze;
As tho' the muse did not this breast inspire,
  I lose in tenderer loves the love of praise.
Oh! Sappho, how art thou imprisoned round,
Beauty's weak captive, fast-enchain'd with sound!
  Frail, frail resolve! vain promise of a day!
  I see, I hear, I feel, and die away.'

A considerable portion of this volume is occupied by 'Cursory Remarks on Readers and the Nature of Poetry: on Dreams and Visions.'—These are chiefly employed, in a very cursory manner, to defend the use of fiction in poetry, and to prove sarcastically the affinity between dreamers and poets. Mr. Dyer has favoured us with a full account of his own art of dreaming: but he has not been lucky in his manner of treating this subject, which was so ingeniously managed by Dr. Byrom, in his letters to The Spectator.

This long preface serves to introduce 'The Dreams of Pindus,' a poem written in stanzas, descriptive of the poetical composition of different ages and nations. We shall quote, as a specimen of its execution, the personification of eastern poetry:

' But quickly now successive to my view,
    Far different forms, and different scenes arise,
    Suns dazzling bright, and ever purpling skies,
  Ambrosial streams, and fields of heavenly hue:
    And far away a wide-extended stream,
  Sacred the name, and dear in Eastern lore,
    (More stately lives not in the poet's dream)
  Rolls its proud wave beside the silent shore.
    And hark! a thousand songs to Mithra rise,
    Luxuriant as the fields, and glowing as the skies.

' The rapt'rous notes fill every sacred bower,
    Till now, as slumb'ring, clos'd the eye of day:
    Then pour'd the nightingale his liquid lay,
  Perch'd on a branch beside a favourite flower:
    And near the flower his eyes are glittering-bright;
  And near the flower his notes so wildly rove,
    As though his little breast with fond delight
  Would break, for blooming Rosa was his love.
    " Sweetest of flowers, oh! still thy stay prolong:
    Oh! sweetest bird, still pour thy soothing melting song."

The 'Padlocked Lady' is written with more ease and happiness than any of Mr. Dyer's other poems. Its subject is political, and refers to the restraints put on British Liberty during the late unhappy contest: but, under the image of pursuing a visionary fair (Freedom), the author has introduced some pleasing descriptions. Such is the picture of his approach to Albion:

> 'I enter—softly blows the breeze;
> Mild is the sun, and smooth the seas.
> With swelling sail, and streamers gay,
> The vessel cuts the watry way.
> Soft Lydian measures lull to rest
> The rising cares, that swell my breast.
> No adverse winds obstruct our course;
> No marshall'd billows urge their force.
> In quiet state and gilded pride,
> Quick o'er the ocean-stream we glide.
> Till soon, in skies of lightest blue,
> Glittering cliffs ascend to view;
> And now behold the wish'd-for land!
> And now we wander o'er the strand.
> Nor doubts, nor fears, my course impede,
> I follow on, as Heav'n may lead.
>
> 'In a long deep recess there lies.
> A cave unseen by mortal eyes.
> High on each side huge rocks arise,
> And proudly seem to scale the skies.
> The jetting sides compose a bay,
> Where Ocean lingers long his way:
> For here the silent waters sleep,
> As broken from the parent deep.
> Woods grace the rocks, and from their brow
> On the dark waters frown below.'

Two ludicrous pieces close the volume; of which, in kindness to the author, we shall say nothing.

Our opinion of Mr. Dyer as a writer may be easily collected from the preceding observations. We certainly do not regard him as possessing first-rate talents, in the composition of either poetry or prose: but we admit his acquisitions to be respectable; and we shall be truly glad if numerous readers derive more vivid and unalloyed pleasure from his volumes, than it has been our fortune to experience.

Art. VIII. *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt*, in Company with several Divisions of the French Army, during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte in that Country; and published under his immediate Patronage, by Vivant Denon. Embellished with numerous Engravings. Translated by Arthur Aikin. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards.—8vo. 3 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte. By Vivant Denon. Translated from the French. To which is prefixed an Historical Account of the Invasion of Egypt by the French. By E. A. Kendal, Esq. Illustrated by Maps, Views, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1802.

Since the chief object of the French, in their invasion of Egypt, was the annoyance of our eastern possessions, we cannot but approve the vigorous measures employed by our government to drive them from their conquest; and we rejoice, as Englishmen, in the brilliant successes which awaited our arms, both by sea and land, on this ever memorable occasion. Nevertheless, as members of the republic of letters, and as general philanthropists, we may find some reason for regretting that sound policy would not permit us to allow the French to remain in possession of Egypt; because it is a part of the world which has been imperfectly examined, and in which the state of society can scarcely be altered for the worse. Perhaps we may allow that the *subordinate* views (at least) of the French, in this expedition were of a liberal and scientific nature: they wished to explore as well as to conquer Egypt; and with this design they attached to the army a body of artists and philosophers *. If they could have obtained a permanent settlement in it, we may reasonably suppose that many discoveries would have been made, and many improvements carried into effect; and if they have accomplished less than was expected, allowance must be made for the circumstances in which they were placed.

In addition to the literary fruits of this expedition which have already appeared before the public, we are now to announce the splendid work of M. Denon; the Parisian edition of which, combining a multitude of most superb engravings

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'* The list of artists, men of letters, and of science, contains, in Geometry 8, in Astronomy 4, in General Mechanics 14, in Watch making 2, in Chemistry 8, in Mineralogy 5, in Botany 4, in Zoology 5, in Surgery 6, in Pharmacy 3, in Antiquities 2, in Architecture 4, in Drawing 5, in Engineering 19, in Geography 18, in Printing 15.'

with an interesting and amusing narrative, and edited in a style of distinguished magnificence, sells in London for twenty guineas; and of which two translations are now before us.

M. Denon was a member of the Institute of Cairo, and, being an excellent draftsman, was selected to accompany the troops designed for the conquest of Upper Egypt; in order that, under the protection of a military escort, he might have an opportunity of examining and delineating every curious remain of antiquity; hence, it is observed by Mr. Aikin,

'The work contains an agreeable mixture of incident and description: and if the journal of the desultory operations of a campaign against an enemy, whose rapid motions, whose invincible courage, whose persevering bravery always rendered him a formidable opponent, interrupts unseasonably now and then an account of the venerable monuments of Thebes or Tentyra; yet this very interruption becomes a stimulus to curiosity, and the attention of the reader, though kept up active to the last, will not be withdrawn ungratified.'

It is well known that Norden and others encountered great difficulties in their travels in Egypt; and that many objects were but partially explored by them, in consequence of their want of safety and confidence. An European antiquary and artist protected by an army of his own countrymen was a new character in Egypt; and in a course of years, information generally satisfactory might have resulted from his researches under such peculiar advantages.

'From the time of Herodotus *, (says M. Denon,) to the present, every traveller, following the steps of his predecessor, had only rapidly ascended the Nile, not daring to lose sight of his boat, and only quitting the shore for a few hours to hurry a few yards off, and visit with anxiety the nearest objects. For every thing beyond the vicinity of the river, the oriental histories alone have been consulted.'

He hoped, however, that, when they were in quiet possession of the country, he should be able to make actual observations at his leisure, respecting all objects which should be found to merit notice, or which might tend to elucidate the Egyptian annals; and even under present circumstances, he exerted himself to be useful in his department.

'Encouraged (he proceeds) by the reception which I met with from the commander in chief, and seconded by all the officers, who partook of my zeal for the arts, I had no other fear than that of wanting time, paper, pencil, and ability, to take down all the objects of curiosity which I met with: I was now accustomed to night encampments, and could subsist very well on ammunition biscuit.'

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* In making extracts from this work, we shall occasionally quote both of the translations: by which the reader may judge of their respective merits. We now copy Mr. Aikin's version.

The English reader will peruse the journal of such a man with an interest which will be increased by the humanity of his disposition, and by the traits of fairness in those parts of the narrative in which he might be expected to have been biassed by national prejudices. Mr. Aikin remarks that,

'M. Denon, not being a soldier by profession, and therefore not hardened to the atrocities of war, has, notwithstanding his natural partiality towards his countrymen, and his personal regard for many of the chiefs in the expedition, given a fairer account of the treatment which the natives underwent from their invaders, than we are likely to receive from any other quarter: and, indeed, of the campaigns in Upper Egypt, he is as yet the only historian: in this view, therefore, his narrative is of peculiar value.'

In his prefatory advertisement, Mr. Aikin thus farther speaks of M. Denon, and of himself in the office of translator:

'The author was by necessity a soldier, but by profession an artist, and a man of letters; hence the remains of the architecture, the sculpture, and the painting of the ancient Egyptians, were the principal objects of his attention; and these he has described both by words and the pencil, so as to render them highly interesting to all those who feel any curiosity about a nation, from whom ancient Greece derived her sublimest philosophy, and which is inseparably connected with the earlier ages of the Jewish history.

'With regard to the present English edition, a few words remain to be said. The narrative in the original is one continued journal, without division of chapters, from the embarkation of the author at Toulon to his landing again in France at Frejus; to this are added several notes, more particularly illustrative of the plates, and mentioning little traits of manners and customs, which the Author, either from inadvertence, or want of opportunity, neglected to introduce into the text. The Translator, however, has taken the liberty of breaking the journal into separate chapters, without, however, in the least degree altering the order of its arrangement; and in a few instances, of incorporating with the text such parts of the notes as appear to have been thrown to the end of the original work, merely in consequence of having been forgotten.

'Notwithstanding the liberal allowance of plates, it has been found expedient, for fear of too much enhancing the price of this edition, to leave out a few which are contained in the original. The picturesque views, therefore, of the battles, and of some other transactions, which, from their very nature must be mere fancy-pieces, are omitted: a similar liberty has also occasionally been taken, in selecting the best of two or three views of the same place from different positions. In this arrangement, the Proprietors have been enabled to retain nearly the whole of those engravings which represent the architectural and hieroglyphical remains of Upper Egypt, and which comprize the valuable part of the decorations of this splendid work.'

In addressing the Institute, M. Denon says, respecting the execution of the labours which were assigned to him;

'It has struck me, that an artist who undertakes to travel, should, before he sets out, divest himself of all professional prejudices; and that he ought not to consider what may, or what may not make a fine drawing, but the general interest which the aspect of the spot he purposes to draw may inspire. I have already, citizens, been recompensed for having divested myself of these prejudices, by the flattering curiosity you have displayed, and by the avidity with which you have examined the immense number of drawings I have brought with me;—drawings which I made most frequently on my knee, or standing, or even on horseback. I have never been able to finish any one of them as I could have wished, for this reason, that during the space of a whole year I could never find a table sufficiently straight and even, to be able to lay a ruler on it.'

Mr. Kendal, in the preface to his translation, speaks of the Egyptian travels of M. Denon as a book in the highest degree interesting and satisfactory:

'An elegant writer, an accurate and picturesque observer, a lively historian, he has brought forward a mass of information of the most varied nature, and such as only the union of his talents and situation could have permitted him to procure and afford. "This distinguished artist," says General Berthier, "followed to the cataracts the division commanded by General Desaix, partaking its fatigues and dangers, to examine the magnificent remains with which the country is covered. His collection will furnish the philosopher with researches fitted to develope the history of an enlightened people, and the lover of the arts with a source of instruction and enjoyment." In truth, the war in upper Egypt is here depicted with so much exactitude, intelligence, and vividness of colour. that the reader fancies himself present at all its transactions; and this narrative, frequently as painful as it is impressive, is blended with accounts of architectural grandeur never exhibited but in Egypt, and views of nature, and of man, in like manner characteristic of that country.

'Nor is it only as a book of general entertainment and knowlege that this work is capable of gratifying curiosity. It has great political value. It throws light on the prospect, behind and before. It shows what France has been in Egypt, and what she desires to be again.'

By such testimonies in favour of the work before us, the curiosity of our readers must inevitably be excited; and their gratification shall be our object, as far as our limits will permit.

On the 14th of May 1798, M. Denon embarked at Toulon on board the frigate *La Junon*; and he details the operations of the French Fleet in its progress to the coast of Egypt. Without entering into these particulars, we shall principally attend to his facts and observations immediately relative to Egypt: but we may first direct our attention for a few moments to the ever famous naval victory at Aboukir. M. Denon viewed this terrible conflict from the tower at the convent of Abu-Mandur, and does not attempt to conceal the fatal effects of this defeat of his countrymen; though his description is somewhat inaccurate, and rather *à la Françoise*. Of his subsequent visit to the coast, he speaks with much sensibility:

> 'We reached the sea-side, (he says) at midnight, when the rising moon lighted up a new scene. The shore, to the extent of four leagues, was covered by wrecks, which enabled us to form an estimate of the loss we had sustained at the battle of Aboukir. To procure a few nails, or a few iron hoops, the wandering Arabs were employed in burning on the beach the masts, gun carriages, boats, &c. which had been constructed at so vast an expense in our ports, and even the wrecks of which were a treasure in a country where so few of these objects were to be found. The robbers fled at our approach; and nothing was left but the bodies of the wretched victims, drifted on the loose sand, by which they were half covered, and exhibiting there a spectacle as sublime as terrific. The sight of these distressing objects plunged my soul by degrees in a deep melancholy.' [*Aikin.*]

On the soldiers, however, the destruction of their fleet did not produce this effect. 'With respect to our heedless soldiers, (says M. Denon) they amused themselves at the expense of our seamen who had been beaten; and having heard that Murad-Bey had a white camel covered with gold and diamonds, their conversation was entirely engrossed by Murad-Bey and his white camel.' How perfectly characteristic of French levity!

M. Denon accounts for the despondency exhibited in the intercepted letters by which we were so egregiously misled, and sufficiently developes his opinion of the importance of Egypt, as a colony, to France. As a country, he speaks of it in high terms:

> 'Several circumstances combined to throw a dark cloud over Egypt, to those travellers at least, who were surprised at finding themselves in a captive state, defeated in their projects, and obliged to concur towards the defence and organization of an establishment, the aim of which was no less than the consolidation of the fortune and glory of the nation at large. They accordingly, in letters destined for France, entered into the most melancholy details; and these letters, which were intercepted by the English, contributed to mislead them as to our real situation. From a persuasion that we were dying with hunger, they sent us back our prisoners, to hasten the moment of our destruction; and published in their newspapers that one-half of our army was at the hospital, while half the remainder was employed in leading the others who were

blind. At this time, however, Upper Egypt supplied us abundantly with the best corn, and Lower Egypt with the finest rice. The sugar made in the country costs only half the price of the sugar in France; and the innumerable herds of buffaloes, oxen, sheep, and goats, both belonging to the cultivators and to the Arab shepherds, abundantly supplied a new consumption at the time of our landing, securing to us plenty, and even superfluity for the future. To these resources we could add, as so many luxuries for our tables, fowl, fish, game, vegetables, and fruits of every description. Such were the objects of prime necessity and of luxury which Egypt afforded to these calumniators, who were in need of gold to repair the abuse they had already made of it, and who, being unable to find any, could perceive nothing around them except burning sands, a perpetual sunshine, gnats and fleas, dogs which prevented them from sleeping, intractable husbands, and women who displayed their haggard necks, while their faces were veiled.

'Let us, however, abandon to the mercy of the winds this swarm of butterflies, which collect wherever a glimpse of sunshine is to be caught; and, glancing into futurity, see our conquests and the peace lay open the ports of Alexandria, bringing thither skilful and industrious cultivators, useful merchants, and, in short, settlers who, without terrifying themselves because Africa does not resemble Europe, will find that in Egypt a man may for three halfpence have a sufficient quantity of the best rice in the world for a day's consumption: that a part of the grounds which the inundations have deserted may be cultivated by means of irrigation: that wind-mills would raise the water to a greater height than the machines with pots, which are at present employed, and which require so much attendance and so many oxen: that the islands of the Nile, and the greater part of the Delta, have need alone of settlers from the West Indies to produce the finest sugar-canes on a territory which will not be destructive to the population: that on approaching Cairo, and on the other side of that city, a little amelioration will suffice to rival the plantations of indigo and cotton to be found elsewhere: and that, while they are making a sure and handsome fortune, they will live under the benign influence of a pure and healthy climate, on the banks of a river of an almost miraculous description, the advantages of which cannot be recapitulated. To conclude, they will see a new colony spring up, with cities ready built, and with skilful workmen, accustomed to toils and inured to the climate, by whose aid, and by the help of the canals which are already traced out, they will in a few years create new provinces, the future abundance of which cannot be doubted, since it will depend on modern industry alone to restore to them their ancient splendour.' [*Aikin.*]

'In Egypt, when nature is charming, it is so in spite of all that men can add to it, or of the detractors of Savary, who have quarrelled so much with his luxurious descriptions. Nature here produces spontaneously groves of palms, under which flourish the orange-tree, the sycamore, opuntia, banana, acacia, and pomegranate; and these trees form groups of the finest mixture of foliage and verdure; and, when these delightful thickets are surrounded, as far as the eye can reach, with fields covered with ripe dourra, with mature sugar-canes, with fields of wheat, flax, and trefoil, which spread a downy carpet over the land, as the inundation retires; when, in the months of our European winter, we have before our eyes this rich prospect of spring, which promises the abundance of summer, we may well say with this traveller, that nature has organized this country in a most astonishing manner, and that there only want woody hills, with brooks flowing down their declivities, and a government which would render the people industrious, and prevent the incursion of the Bedouins, to render it the best and most beautiful country on the face of the earth.' [*Aikin.*]

It must be confessed that, in order to obtain possession of this country, the French made great exertions; and we shall now quote the account of a battle by land in which they were successful, though the victory was not easily purchased:

'Desaix had learned that Murad was at Sedinan, burning with impatience to give him battle. He therefore gave orders to advance towards the Arab chief. As soon as we had quitted the enclosed and cultivated country, loud cries of fierce joy were heard; but the day being far advanced, the enemy deferred till the morrow the victory of which they were so confident. The night was passed in feasting in their camp, and in the dark their patroles came to insult our advanced posts, imitating our language. At the first dawn of day we formed in a hollow square battalion, with two platoons on our flanks. Soon after, we saw Murad-Bey at the head of his formidable Mamelukes, and eight or ten thousand Arabs advancing to us, covering a league of the plain. A valley separated the two armies, which we had to cross to reach our enemies. We were hardly got to this unfavourable position, when the enemy surround us on all sides, and charge us with an intrepidity approaching to fury: our close files render their numbers useless; our musketry keep up a steady fire, and repel their first attack; they halt, fall back, as if retiring from the field, and suddenly fall upon one of our platoons, and overwhelm it: all who are not killed immediately throw themselves on the ground, and this movement uncovers the enemy to our grand square; then we take advantage of it, and pour in our fire, which again makes them halt and fall back. All that remain of the platoon enter the ranks, and we collect the wounded. We are again attacked in mass, not with the cries of victory, but of rage; the courage is equal on both sides, they are animated by hope, we by indignation: our musket-barrels are cut with their sabres, their horses fall against our files, which receive the shock unshaken; the horses are startled at our bayonets; and their riders turn their heads, and back them upon us to open our ranks by their kicks: our people, who knew that their safety consisted in remaining united, press on without disorder, and attack without breaking their ranks; carnage is on all sides, but each party fight without mixing with the other. At last the fruitless attempts of the Mamelukes urge them to a madness of rage, they throw at us their arms, which otherwise could not reach us; and, as if this were to be their last battle, they shower upon us their guns, pistols, hatchets, and the ground is strewed with arms of all kinds. Those who are dismounted drag themselves under our bayonets, and cut at our soldiers' legs with their sabres; the dying man summons his last effort to throttle his adversary. One of our men lying on the ground, was seizing an expiring Mameluke, and strangling him, an officer said to him, "How can you, in your condition, do such an act?" "You speak much at your ease," the man replied, "you who are unhurt; but I, who have not long to live, must have some enjoyment while I may."

'The enemy had now suspended their attack; they had killed many of our men; and though they retired, they had not fled; and our position was not at all amended. Directly after their retreat had left us uncovered, they opened upon us a battery of eight guns, which they had before masked, and which at every discharge brought down six or eight of our men. We had now a moment of consternation and dismay, and the number of our wounded every instant encreased. To sound a retreat would be to revive the courage of the enemy, and to expose ourselves to every kind of calamity; to remain where we were would be to encrease our disaster fruitlessly, and to risk the lives of us all; but in marching we must abandon our wounded, and give them up to certain destruction—a most distressing circumstance in all wars, and especially in the savage contest in which we were now engaged. What order was to be given? Desaix, in dreadful perplexity, stood awhile motionless; but the common interest, and the voice of imperious necessity, drowned the cries of the wounded; the word was given, and we marched on. We had no choice between compleat victory, or entire destruction; and this extremity was so sensibly felt by all, that the whole army became, in courage and unanimity, as a single individual. Our light artillery, commanded by the impetuous Tournerie, perform prodigies of celerity and address; and whilst in its hasty course it is dismounting the Mameluke cannon, our grenadiers come up, the battery is abandoned; and this army of cavalry, ten times our number, immediately stand amazed, check their course, fall back, gallop off, and disappear like a vapour, leaving us without an enemy.

'Never was there a more terrible battle, a more splendid victory, and a more unexpected success. I still think of it as a frightful dream, which has only left in the mind a vague impression of terror.*' [*Aikin.*]

By this victory, Upper Egypt was opened to the French; and M. Denon, as an artist and a man of science, availed himself of the opportunities which it afforded him, in pursuing those researches for which the literary corps was attached to the expedition.

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* To this extract, the reflection of M. Denon in another place may be subjoined.

'O war! thou art brilliant in history, but frightful when viewed with all thy attending horrors, naked, and undisguised.'

Though the Pyramids in the neighbourhood of Cairo have been often examined and described, we must not pass over this intelligent Frenchman's reflections on their construction and effect:

'In approaching these stupendous buildings, their sloping and angular forms disguise their real height, and lessen it to the eye; and besides, as every thing regular is only great or small by comparison, and as these masses of stone eclipse in magnitude every surrounding object, and yet are much inferior to a mountain (the only thing with which our imagination can compare them) one is surprised to find the first impression given by viewing them at a distance, so much diminished on a nearer approach. However, on attempting to measure any one of these gigantic works of art by some known scale, it resumes its immensity to the mind; for as I approached to the opening, a hundred persons who were standing under it appeared so small, that I could hardly take them for men. It would be a good method for the artist to give an idea of the dimension of these edifices, by representing on the same ground-plan as the building, some procession or religious ceremony analogous to the antient customs. As it is, these monuments standing alone, and without any living scale of comparison, excepting a few detached figures in front, lose both the effect of their grand proportions, and the general impression which they would otherwise make. We have a good example of comparison in Europe in St. Peter's church at Rome, the magnitude of which is concealed by the exquisite harmony of proportion, and the crossing of the general outline, till the eye descends to a procession of the religious orders celebrating mass, and followed by a train of worshippers, which in this situation appears like a group of puppets attempting to act Athalia on the theatre of Versailles. Another point of resemblance between these two edifices is, that nothing but the despotism of a sacerdotal government could venture to undertake them, nor any thing but the stupid fanaticism of a people would submit to the labour of building.' [*Aikin.*]—

'In reflecting on the object of the construction of the pyramids, the gigantic pride which gave them birth appears more enormous even than their actual dimensions; and one hardly knows which is the most astonishing, the madness of tyrannical oppression, which dared to order the undertaking, or the stupid servility of obedience in the people who submitted to the labour. In short, the most favourable view, for the honour of human nature in which these monuments can be considered is, that man was thereby ambitious of rivalling nature in immensity and eternity, and not without success, since the mountains contiguous to these edifices are less high, and still less exempted from the ravages of time than this work of human hands.' [*Aikin.*]

Of the plenty and cheapness of Egypt, some idea may be formed from the following passage: 'We found here (*Girgeh*) all kinds of provisions, at a very low price; bread was one sous the pound; twelve eggs, two sous; two pigeons, three sous; a goose weighing fifteen pounds, we got at twelve sous:—could this be poverty? Such too was the abundance of these articles, that after more than five thousand of us had remained here three weeks, and had encreased the consumption, and scattered out money, no rise in the demand for these necessaries had taken place.'

The nature of the climate of Egypt will be sufficiently evinced by this short account of the Pyramid of Hilahun:

> 'The pyramid of Hilahun, the most shattered of all the pyramids which I have seen, is also that which is built with the least magnificence. It is constructed of masses of calcareous stones, serving as points of support to heaps of unbaked bricks; but, perishable as this kind of building is, and perhaps more antient than the pyramids of Memphis, it still holds together; so favourable is the climate of Egypt to these monuments which endure for ages here, but would fall to pieces by the rigour of a single European winter.' [*Aikin.*]

The sight of the remains of the temple of Hermopolis excites M. Denon's enthusiasm as an antiquary:

> 'In approaching the eminence on which is built the portico of Hermopolis, I saw its outline in the horizon, and its gigantic features. We crossed the canal of Abu-Assi, and soon after, passing across mountains and ruins, we reached this beautiful monument, a relic of the highest antiquity.
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> 'I was enchanted with delight at thus seeing the first fruit of my labours; for, excepting the pyramids, this was the first monument which gave me an idea of the ancient Egyptian architecture; the first stones that I had seen which had preserved their original destination, without being altered or deformed by the works of modern times, and had remained untouched for four thousand years, to give me an idea of the immense range and high perfection to which the arts had arrived in this country. A peasant who should be drawn out from his cottage, and placed before such a building as this, would believe that there must exist a wide difference between himself and the beings who were able to construct it; and without having any idea of architecture, he would say, this is the work of a god, a man could not dare to inhabit it. Is it the Egyptians who have invented and brought to perfection such a beautiful art? This is a question which I am unable to answer; but even on a first glimpse of this edifice we may pronounce, that the Greeks have never devised nor executed any thing in a grander style. The only idea which disturbed my enjoyment here was, that I must so soon quit this magnificient object, and that it required the hand of a master, and ample leisure, to do it justice with the pencil; whereas, my powers were humble, and my time measured out. But I could not quit it without attempting the sketch which I have given to my readers, which can but faintly express the sensations which this noble fabric conveys, and which I sincerely hope some future artist will be enabled to finish under more fortunate circumstances.' [*Aikin.*]

If, however, the writer's curiosity was gratified in the day, his satisfaction was counterbalanced in some measure by the annoyance which he experienced at night, in a room in which he and General Beliard were invited to sleep by the hospitality of the owner:

'I was lodged without the walls, and before a handsome house which appeared very commodious; the owner was sitting at his ease before his door, and seeing one lying down on the outside, he beckoned me into a chamber, where I found General Beliard, who had already taken advantage of his hospitality. I was hardly asleep when I was awakened by an intolerable restlessness, which I took to be the beginning of an inflammatory fever; but after remaining a long time in this state of agitation, I found my companion as ill off as myself, and we both started up and left the room, and looking at each other by moonlight, our whole skin was red, inflamed, and our features hardly distinguishable; and on further examination, we found ourselves covered with vermin of every kind.

'These mansions in Upper Egypt are nothing but vast pigeon-houses, in which the owner reserves to himself only a room or two for his own use, and there he lodges along with poultry of all kinds, and all the vermin that they engender between them, which it is a part of his daily employment to hunt for, but at night the toughness of his skin defies their bites; and thus our host, who intended to do us a civility, could not conceive the reason of our quitting him so abruptly. We got rid as well as we could of the most troublesome of these intruders, vowing faithfully never again to accept of such hospitality.' [*Aikin.*]

The town of Siut, or Lycopolis, the Lybian range of mountains, and the antient excavated tombs, are duly noticed by the traveller. Here we shall make a considerable extract from Mr. Kendal's translation; first informing the reader that Mr. K. generally speaks of M. Denon in the third person, presenting the narrative in rather an abridged state, while Mr. Aikin preserves the original form of the journal.

'M. Denon was eager to examine an Egyptian mountain. He had seen two chains from Kaira, without daring to run the hazard of approaching either. He found this part of the Libyan chain a ruin of nature, formed of horizontal beds, and layers of calcareous stone, more or less soft, more or less white, intersected with large nipple-shaped and concentrated flints, which appeared to be the kernels or bones of this long chain, to maintain its existence, and suspend its total destruction: this dissolution is daily taking place, through the impression of the saline atmosphere, which penetrates every part of the surface of the calcareous stone, decomposes it, causes it to descend, so to say, in rivulets of sand, which are first accumulated below the rock, then rolled away by the winds, and lastly, wave by wave, driven on the villages and fields, which they change into mournful deserts. The rocks are at about half a mile from Siût; in the intervening the ruins are a few palm-trees, the remotest productions of the waters of the Nile.

'The grand door of the temple opens opposite the center of the portico, and is covered with hieroglyphics. The portico is more elevated than the nave, or body, of the temple; an austere simplicity reigns throughout the architecture, which is enriched with innumerable hieroglyphics that do not interfere, however, with its beautiful lines: a large cornice majestically crowns the whole edifice; a torus, which appears to surround it, increases the appearance of the solidity of the talus which exists throughout, and serves to complete the junction, taking away the poverty of repeated angles, without taking away the precision and solidity of the whole, since this solidity manifests itself where it ought, that is to say at the extremity of the cornices. Three sphinx heads project from the side of the nave; and, from their form, and the holes between their paws, it is probable that they were gutters by which was discharged the water thrown upon the flat roof of the temple to cool the apartments within it; for, under the ruins of the Arabian buildings which still remain on this roof, there are little private temples, decorated with the most elaborate and scientific hieroglyphics. The modern habitations of these ruins, which are still seen, were doubtlessly erected at this elevation in the hope of placing them out of the reach of the Bedûins, and living on this edifice as within a fortress; or, rather, to escape a burning soil, and seek coolness in the loftier atmosphere. The quantity of Roman coin of the time of Constantine and of Theodosius, which is daily found here in digging for nitre, seems to show that Tintyra was still inhabited at that era. M. Denon himself found Roman lamps of burnt earth, mingled in the ruins with little Egyptian divinities in glass and in porcelain, with a blue varnish.

'On the plinth of the cornice which crowns the sanctuary of the temple, there is an inscription in the Greek character, but too much injured by time, and at too great an elevation, to allow M. Denon, from the height at which he saw it, to copy it. M. Denon thinks it a dedication posterior to the erection of the temple, made by one of the governors of the province for the Ptolemies: another Greek inscription, placed in the same manner over the southern door, may support this opinion. In the centre of the cornice is an head of Isis, which, every where repeated, shows that this temple was dedicated to that goddess. Below, on the entablature, is the winged globe which occupies this place in all the edifices of Egypt: the same figure is in this instance repeated on all the stones of the plat-bands which form the cieling of the portico. The capitals of the columns, very peculiarly decorated, produce, in their execution, an effect as noble as it is rich. The square part represents a temple, with a divinity under the portico of its sanctuary: below which are faces of Isis, with the ears of a cow, and the head-dress of the Egyptian women.

'Nothing can be more simple and better adapted than the small number of lines which are comprized by this architecture. The Egyptians having borrowed nothing from others, have employed no foreign ornament, nor any thing beyond what was dictated by necessity: ordonnance and simplicity have been their principles; and

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they have carried these principles to sublimity! arrived at this point, they attached equal importance to its preservation, and to the care that, much as they loaded their edifices with bass-relief, inscriptions, and historical and scientific pictures, none of these ornaments should destroy a single line. These lines have been respected; they seem to have been sanctified; all that is decorative, rich, and sumptuous, at hand, disappears at a distance, and leaves nothing visible but the principle, which is always grand, and always directed by a powerful reason. It never rains in this climate; nothing therefore was wanting but plat-bands to cover and overshadow; from this cause, there are no pitched roofs, nor no [any] pediments: the talus is the principle of solidity; and they chose it for every part by which any thing was borne, esteeming security as the first sentiment which architecture ought to inspire, and its constituent beauty. With them, the immortality of God was represented by the eternity of his temple. Their ornaments, always founded upon reason, always agreeing with each other, and always significative, equally evinced fixed principles, a taste founded upon truth, and a concatenation of profound reasonings; and, though we have not acquired evidence of the eminent degree at which they had arrived in the abstract sciences, their architecture alone, in the state in which we have found it, should give us an idea of the antiquity, the refinement, the character, and the gravity, of this people.

'I have not, continues M. Denon, words, as I have said, to describe my feelings while I stood below the portico of Tintyra. I thought myself, I really was in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. At the sight of an edifice like this, what a succession of epochs presented themselves to my imagination! how many ages must have been occupied in leading a creative nation to these results, to this degree of perfection and sublimity in the arts; how many other ages to bring about the oblivion of such a multitude of things, and to reconduct man, upon the same soil, to the state of nature in which we had found him! never was there so much space in a single point; never were the steps of time more strongly marked, or better followed. What uninterrupted power, what wealth, what abundance, what superfluity of resources must have belonged to a government that could raise an edifice like this, and that could find in its nation men capable of conceiving, executing, decorating, and enriching it with all that speaks to the eyes and to the mind!

'M. Denon wished to make drawings of all the parts of this temple, but he trembled on putting his hand to the work; he felt that, unable to raise his design to the elevation of that which he admired, he should disfigure what he desired to imitate: no where had he been surrounded by so many objects fitted to exalt his imagination. These edifices, which impress the respect due to the sanctuary of the Divinity, were books by which science was developed, or morals dictated, or useful arts explained; all spoke, all was animated, and all constantly expressed the same. The embrasure of the doors, the angles, the most obscure line, equally presented a lesson, a precept, and all in admirable harmony; the lightest ornament on the gravest member of architecture displayed in a vivid manner the most abstract dogma that astronomy has to express. Painting, further, added a charm to the sculpture and architecture, and produced in the union an agreeable richness, which took neither from the simplicity nor the gravity of the whole. Painting, in Egypt, at this period, was used merely for ornament; according to all appearance, it was not even a peculiar art: sculpture was emblematic, and, so to say, architectural. Architecture, then, was *the* art, by excellence; the art dictated by utility; this alone, therefore, might remove the doubt, if not of the primogeniture, at least of the superiority of the architecture of the Egyptians compared with that of the Indians, because while it participated in nothing with the latter, it has yet become the basis of all that we have since admired, of all that we have thought exclusively belonging to architecture, the three Grecian orders, the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian. We must be careful therefore to think, not, as it is vulgarly believed, that the architecture of Egypt is the infancy of the art, but, that it is the type.

'M. Denon could not hope to find any thing more complete or more perfect than Tintyra. He was agitated by the multiplicity of objects, amazed by their novelty, and tormented with the fear that he should not behold them again. On the cielings, he had seen planetary systems, zodiacs, and celestial planispheres, represented with an ordonnance full of taste; on the walls he found endless representations of the rites of the Egyptian worship, the proceedings in agriculture and the arts, and the precepts of morals and religion: he saw that the Supreme Being was every where represented by emblems and by his qualities: all these it was equally important to collect; and M. Denon had only a few hours for observation, reflection, and drawing. Our French impatience, he observes, would have been shocked at the constant dispositions of the people who executed these edifices: throughout, there are the same research and care; a fact which leads to a conclusion that the works were not performed by the kings, but at the expence of the nation, under the direction of the priests, and by artists on whom they imposed invariable rules. Among the latter, a lapse of time would have produced some extension of faculty; but each temple has so complete an equality in all its parts, that all seem to have been sculptured by the same hand; there is nothing better, nothing worse; no negligence, no effusion of distinguished genius; unity and harmony reign throughout. The art of sculpture, enchained to architecture, was circumscribed in its principle, in its method, and in its mode: a figure expresses nothing by its sentiment; it was to have such an attitude to express such a thing; the sculptor had his pattern, and was not permitted to make an alteration, by doing which he might have changed its true meaning: it was with these figures as with our playing-cards, of which we preserve the imperfections, lest we should take from the facility with which they are recognized. The perfection which they have given to their animals sufficiently proves that they had an idea of style; they have marked their character with a few lines, upon a grand principle, and a system which tended to the beautiful in gravity, and the beautiful in idea, as has already been seen in the two sphinxes of the capitol, and which exist in the style of those which are on the side of the temple.

'As for the character given to the human figure, borrowing nothing from other nations, they have copied their own, which was rather agreeable than fine. The figures of women resemble their handsome women of the present day: their lines are round and plump; the nose little; the eyes long, but little open, and raised at the exterior angle, like those of all nations among which this organ is fatigued by the ardour of the sun or the whiteness of snow; the flesh of the cheeks rather full, the lips thick, the mouth wide, but smiling and gracious: throughout, the African character, of which the Negro is the extreme, and perhaps the original.

'The hieroglyphics, executed in three manners, are also of three kinds, and may likewise belong to three eras: from examining the different edifices which he beheld, M. Denon was enabled to form an opinion that the most antient are those which have only a simple outline, cut without relief, and very deep; the second, and those which produce the least effect, are merely in very low relief; and the third, which seem to be of a better age, and which are more perfectly executed at Tintyra than at any other place in Egypt, are in relief within a hollow contour. Across the figures which compose the subjects, there are little hieroglyphics, which appear to contain their explanation; and which, with simplified forms, seem a more rapid manner of expression, a sort of *running-band,* [short-hand, *Aikin,*] if this expression may be used, in speaking of sculpture.

'A fourth kind seems to have been devoted to ornament; it has been called, improperly, and it is difficult to say why, *arabesque:* adopted by the Greeks, in the time of Augustus it was received among the Romans, and in the fifteenth century, on the revival of the arts, it was transmitted to us as a fantastic decoration, of which the taste was all the merit. Among the Egyptians, equally employed with taste, each object had a meaning or a moral, and was at the same time made a decoration of the frises, the cornices, and the substructions [sur-bases] of their architecture. There are at Tintyra representations of caryatide-peristiles of temples, such as were executed in painting at the baths of Titus, copied by Raphaël, and every day aped in our chambers, without a thought that the Egyptians furnished the first models.

'Amidst the anxieties with which the number of interesting objects filled the mind of M. Denon, who had so short a period of time for their examination, he discovered a little apartment containing a celestial planisphere. This apartment was one of those which lay under the ruins of the Arabian fabrics on the roof of the temple. He had entered this chamber before he perceived, with the declining light of day, that he was alone with general Belliard, who would not leave him in so desert a place, and with whom he was obliged to hasten, at full gallop, after the division.' [*Kendal.*]

We are now just arrived at the threshold of Egyptian antiquities; and, as we cannot in one article do justice to M.

Denon's details, we shall resume the subject in another Number, and exhibit his account of the stupendous monuments of Upper Egypt.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IX. *State of Egypt, after the Battle of Heliopolis*; preceded by general Observations on the physical and political Character of the Country. By Reynier, General of Division. Translated from the French. With a Map of Lower Egypt. 8vo. pp. 350. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

Campaign between the French Army of the East and the British and Turkish Forces in Egypt. By General Reynier. Translated from the French. To which are added, Observations and Corrections by an English Officer of Hompesch's Dragoons. 8vo. pp. 146. 4s. Ridgway. 1802.

The work of General Reynier, intitled *De l'Egypte après la Bataille d'Heliopolis*, would probably not have been presented to the public, had not a misunderstanding taken place between the Generals of the French army of the East, after the departure of Bonaparte and the assassination of Kleber, and had not our troops been successful in the Egyptian campaign. To save the reputation of the French forces, the conduct of General Menou (their leader) is arraigned; and in order to detract from the merit of our victorious soldiers, it is insinuated that they would have failed, had the Chief of the French army been worthy of commanding it. As our expedition to Egypt excited the attention of all Europe, the narrative of Reynier had an extensive circulation on the Continent; and, as it was calculated to afford consolation to the vanquished, it was not unacceptable to the French people. The impressions, however, under which it was composed, are not favourable to accuracy; because, when passion and disappointed ambition guide the pen, the historian will probably be often seduced from the faithful discharge of his duty. It has happened thus in the present case; and against the report of the French General, the British Officers have good reason for protesting: yet it will be amusing to them and to the British public in general, to see in what manner our late enemies speak of our successes, and account for their own expulsion from the East.

It is evident that the French depended on retaining Egypt, that they were therefore extremely mortified in being driven from it, and that its re-occupation is among their most darling plans. While they were in possession of it, they studied it in all its relations, and their writings evince the extent and profundity of their observations. In General Reynier, the soldier is combined with the philosopher and the politician; and though we must reproach him with not having done justice to the skill of our commanders and the valour of our troops, we must allow that he has well appreciated the physical state and resources of Egypt, and ably delineated the conduct and views of his countrymen.

The work is divided into three parts; preceded by an introduction, containing General Observations on the Physical and Political Character of Egypt. Part I. relates Affairs from the months of April and May 1800 to the months of October and November 1801. Part II. Military and Political Events till the commencement of the Campaign, from October 1800 to March 1801. Part III. The Campaign against the English and Turks.—The introductory chapter commences with a description of the face of the country:

> 'Egypt is inclosed by natural barriers. Separated from Asia by deserts, a small number of lower grounds, in which brackish water is found, are the only routes by which an army can approach on that side. The flat shore of Egypt on the Mediterranean, and the mouths of the Nile embarrassed with bars of sand, afford only a few places proper to land troops. Bounded on the west by immense deserts, Egypt is subject on that side only to irruptions of the Arabs of Barbary. Separated from the Red Sea by a desert, she has little reason to dread attack from that quarter; since the two ports of that sea offer no resource to an invading army, which could scarcely procure fresh water there, and must obtain from Egypt itself the provisions and camels necessary to pass the desert.
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> 'On each side of the Nile, in higher Egypt, is a chain of barren mountains The valley in which the river flows between these mountains is from four to five leagues in breadth, and is covered with water at the periodical inundations of the Nile. This valley alone is cultivated and inhabited. The chain of mountains on the eastern side, which separates the Nile from the Red Sea, is of greater height than the western. It terminates toward the valley by precipices, which in many places have the appearance of a high and immense wall, broken here and there by narrow valleys, formed by sudden and temporary winter torrents, which serve for paths to pass over these mountains. The western chain, which separates the valley of the Nile from that of Ouasis, generally declines in a gradual manner. Towards Siout, however, it is more abrupt; and from the angle which the Nile forms near Hennh, it is steep, like the eastern chain, till it reaches Sienna, [Siene] where the mountains rise still higher, and leave only a narrow passage to the river.
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> 'In the neighbourhood of Cairo, the distance between these two chains of mountains increases. The eastern terminates towards the extremity of the Red Sea, without any appearance of connexion with

with the mountains of Arabia, which terminate in the same manner *.

In considering the effect of the inundations of the Nile on the operations of an army, M. Reynier observes that it may be established as a general rule, that Lower Egypt is passable in a complete manner only from the beginning of February to the end of August; 'so that military operations are not practicable in Lower Egypt during more than seven months of the year.'

The system of war adopted by the French was pointed out by the physical circumstances of Egypt, in which were none of the natural lines of defence that are usual in other countries:

> 'A very erroneous idea will be formed of the fortifications constructed in Egypt, if the reader applies to them what is understood in Europe by the words strong place, fort, military post, &c. What I have said before of the obstacles that were to be surmounted is always to be called to mind. The French had to create a new kind of fortifications and works applicable to the country, consistent with the materials that could be obtained, and relative to the several kinds of attacks which might be expected. The engineer officers cannot be too highly praised for having effected as much as they did within the space of three years.

'* The manner in which the chain of mountains on each coast of the Red Sea terminates, and the low lands which form a species of valley in the isthmus of Suez—a valley inclosed on each side with sand-hills, stretching to the foot of the mountains, particularly on the side of Asia—would lead us to suppose that in former times there was a communication between the two seas by a strait, since filled with sands brought thither by the opposing currents, and the accumulation of the mud of the Nile at the mouths of that river. Some extraordinary change which has altered the level of the Mediterranean —since that is twenty-five feet lower than the Red Sea—may have contributed to the first formation of the isthmus, which has since been greatly increased by the mud of the Nile.

'The moving sand-hills extend (as will be seen in the map) from Abouroak and Bir-deodar beyond El-Arish. They occupy the entire space lying between the Mediterranean and the mountains of Arabia Petrea, whose base they cover. The winds, which in this country are considerably uniform, have given the same direction to all the sand-hills. They stretch generally from the north-west to the south-east, and are separated by narrow valleys. It is only in the lower of these sand-hills, usually lying at the foot of higher ground of the same nature, that water is found by sinking wells of several feet in depth. Palm-trees, which grow on these sands, are a sure indication of water.

'These moving sands, and the inequality of their surface, render a march particularly toilsome, and are the greatest obstacle to the passage of the desert by an army.'

'Houses, or the remains of antient works, with the addition of a battlement, and mounted with a few pieces of cannon, small towers surmounted with a terrace, and one or two pieces of cannon, formed posts in which twenty French soldiers fearlessly expected and repulsed all the attacks of the enemy's cavalry, or the insurrections of multitudes, sometimes aided by artillery, although ill served. Many of the posts which I have called forts were of this kind. Provisions and ammunition for a garrison, as well as such as were stored up for the army, were deposited in magazines constructed within these forts, or built against them, and protected by them.'—

'These fortifications were excellent against Turkish troops unaccustomed to regular attacks, of which their organization even renders them incapable, and who scarcely know how to use artillery. But the resistance they could make to European troops would be very unimportant. Considered, however, as magazines to supply the wants of the army wherever it might act, they completely answered their design; the defence of Egypt rested on the army, which ought always to have been in a condition to concentrate its forces, to march against the enemy wherever he appeared to be strongest.'

Since Egypt was to be preserved rather by an army than by fortifications, the attention of the French was directed to the construction of roads.

A section is employed in delineating the character of the Arabs, who may be said 'to form a frame in which the population of Egypt is inclosed. They constitute an empire within an empire. And I have described their political condition and character with some minuteness, because traces of these are found in all the other classes of Egypt.'

Another section describes the state of the Fellahs, or cultivators, who are supposed to be a mixture of the first irruption of Arabs with the antient inhabitants. Their condition is miserable:

'Certain to draw upon themselves by an appearance of easy circumstances new contributions, often beyond their means, they are peculiarly careful to disguise what they possess. Very different from the European farmers, who put on their gayest apparel when they visit their landlords, the Fellahs studiously cover themselves with the worst of their apparel when they appear before their lords.'

To this part is added an account of the inhabitants of the cities, of the Mamalukes, and of their government. Allowing the organization of the Mamalukes to have been faithfully delineated by Volney, the present writer contents himself with exhibiting a general idea of the character of this extraordinary body:

'It is a most singular phænomenon to see, in the neighbourhood of the Arabs, fiercely attached to the distinction of ranks transmitted by their ancestors, a numerous class, who venerate only the purchased slave, whose parents are unknown, and who from slavery is raised to the highest dignities *. This sentiment prevails also throughout Turkey; and even at Constantinople, in the heart of the government, whose principle it is to preserve the race of Osman, and where there are families of great antiquity and very high consideration.'

The Mamalukes leave few children, but the Fellahs have a great number; and were it not for their fecundity, the plague would almost destroy the population of Egypt, which is stated at 2,500,000, or at the most three millions, including the city of Cairo, which contains from 250,000 to 300,000 inhabitants.

In giving a summary of the social condition of the inhabitants of Egypt, the General very justly observes that 'the elements of society oppose themselves to all amelioration; and that no useful change can be effected but by foreigners possessing the government.' Hence he laments the abandonment of that country by the French, who had acquired the means of that amelioration; and who, under this impression, excited in the inhabitants, by his account, the most lively regret for their departure.

From general reflections, we now pass to historical details; commencing with an account of the comfortable situation of the French army of the East after the battle of Heliopolis, of the plans formed by General Kleber, of his assassination, of General Menou's taking the command, and of his conduct in the first instance. Here Menou is represented as playing a *nolo episcopari* part, and as afterward displaying extreme littleness of mind; and here the animosity between Menou and Reynier displays itself.

'A discussion arose between the two Generals concerning a successor to Kleber.

'General Menou maintained that he was unqualified for the command; that, having been in little active service, he was less known to the troops than General Reynier; and *that he had already refused the command in chief on other occasions*. He lavished his *word of honour* that he would sooner give in his resignation as a general officer, than accept the command; and that, even if it were imposed upon him, he would avail himself of its authority to order General Reynier to assume it.

'* Turkish officers, as well as Mamalukes, have said to me, speaking of persons who filled the highest offices,—"*He is a man of birth, he was a purchased slave.*"

'The present grand-visir and the capitan-pacha were originally slaves; and so rooted is this prejudice, that the children of these very individuals are not considered as possessing the same degree of nobility with their father and mother, who were purchased slaves.'

'General Reynier observed to him, that, in such circumstances, the laws ordered the oldest General officer to take the provisional command, till the pleasure of the government should be known; and that, if he desired time to come to a resolution as to the command in chief, he could not decline to issue his orders as commandant of Cairo; and that, for his part, he deemed the command of too important a nature to assume it without mature reflexion. Perceiving that General Menou came to no resolution, he took him aside; and, repeating his arguments, added that such a discussion ought to be postponed to a time of less difficulty.

'General Menou again insisted that he could not take the command; that he had not seen service, and was unknown to the troops, who were perhaps prejudiced against him by his change of religion. General Reynier observed, that he ought not to consider his change of religion as any obstacle; that it would even render his authority more easy to the people of the country; and that all the Generals, and General Reynier in particular, would assist him with their whole powers and best counsels. He invited him at all events to take the lead at present as commandant of Cairo. He then led General Menou back to the aid-de-camp, and the discussion ended for that time.

'The examinations concerning the assassination continued. The next day General Menou assumed the title of commander in chief *ad interim*, and appointed General Reynier president of the commission charged to try the assassin.

'After the interment of Kleber, and the execution of the assassin, General Menou assumed the title of *General in chief*. The army with great reluctance saw him succeed its former Generals: murmurs were heard in several corps. But they were appeased by the Generals, who hoped that General Menou's knowledge of business would well qualify him to direct the civil administration, and that in actual service and times of danger he would avail himself of their military experience.

'General Menou at first appeared willing to gain the good will of every one. He received with attention the Generals and the heads of the various civil departments; paid them frequent visits; and seemed even to anticipate their counsels and wishes. But it was not long before signs of animosity against his predecessor, and low intrigues for the confirmation of the command, began to betray at least his feeble policy. The murmurs of the army, and the reproaches made to General Reynier for having induced him to assume the command, excited his jealousy; although the open conduct of that General ought to have quieted his mind as to any danger of rivalry.'

To point out the incompetency of Menou for the chief command, to expose the effects of his weakness and jealousy, and of the schism which arose among the Generals, are the objects of the subsequent pages. As it would be uninteresting to most of our readers minutely to follow him in this undertaking, we shall hasten to notice the third part of the work, which relates the Campaign against the English and Turks. This is the only division of General Reynier's publication, which is given in the pamphlet intitled '*Campaign between the French Army of the East and the British and Turkish Forces in Egypt*;' and, in order to obviate the misrepresentations and reflections cast on our army in the statements of the French General, the corrections and remarks of Sir Robert Wilson (the 'Officer of Hompesch's Dragoons') are added, as well as extracts from the London Gazette.

After having asserted that the British troops lay down in the boats; that he saw two battalions throw down their arms, and two regiments crawl under the cavalry; with other statements of the same kind; Reynier concludes his narrative of the defeat of his countrymen in the following terms:

> 'Thus terminated the expedition to Egypt. It affords an example of the facility with which the influence of an unskilful commander can destroy all the resources intrusted to his care. Few armies, however, have better claims to admiration than that of the East. Transported to a foreign soil, the disastrous event of the naval action at Aboukir interposed a barrier betwixt it and its country. The troops, however, were not discouraged. A rapid march carried them to the centre of Egypt, and every step of their progress was marked by victory. Each day produced new fatigues, new dangers, and privations of every kind. They partook of none of those enjoyments which occasionally soften the horrors of war, and teach men to forget the hardships of a military life. Every officer and soldier willingly submitted to this painful state of existence. The eagerness of the enemy to recover Egypt, convinced them that its possession was useful to their country, and this idea consoled them for all their sufferings.
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> 'The reverse which this army experienced in its last campaign did not tarnish its glory. Though dispersed by the arrangements of its Chief, it for a long time kept in awe on every point, enemies who were constantly superior in number, and its firm attitude in the most difficult moments never failed to retard their progress.
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> 'The only operation which does honour to the English, was their landing; for the success of which they are indebted to their navy. Six thousand men who were disembarked at once, were thrown into confusion by 1700 of the French, though the latter were at the same time obliged to defend the whole extent of the Bay of Aboukir, and consequently could not act together on the point of attack. From the day of their landing until the 13th of May, the English army did not attempt to approach Alexandria. The whole French army ought to have been assembled there by that time, but they were met by only 4000 men, who disputed the ground with them, and intimidated them so much that they durst not attack that place. Instead of profiting by the advantages they possessed, they acted on the defensive, and intrenched themselves.
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> 'On the 21st of March, the French attacked them in a close position, which they had previously fortified. Gun-boats on the sea and Lake Maadieh, covered their flanks. Their troops were double the number of ours. The obscurity of the night, and the death of

several officers of rank, threw the French army into disorder. He who commanded it, remained at a distance, could not rally it himself, and would not intrust that duty to any other person: he occasioned the destruction of the cavalry, and the army was forced to retreat. But the English still failed to turn their success to advantage.

'Shut up in their intrenchments, they did not venture out for twenty days after the battle. They then proceeded to Rosetta, an important post to them, but which the French army did not protect.

'They remained there a month before they took possession of Rahmanieh, the occupation of which was equally useful to them for intercepting all communication between Alexandria and Cairo. The French troops at Rahmanieh were too weak to resist them, and therefore retreated to Cairo. It was their interest to follow them rapidly; but they took forty days in completing a march which the French usually performed in four.

'They arrived at last at Cairo with the Capitan Pacha: there they were joined by the Vizier; and these armies, six times more numerous than the French, were still afraid to risk the chance of an action, and rather submitted to terms than dictated them in the treaty of evacuation.

'They proceeded afterwards to Alexandria, where the same inactivity marked all their operations; and the surrender of that place was accelerated much more by the want of provisions, than by any boldness on their part.

'The expedition of the English was successful; but they may be said to have obtained from it only that glory which strictly belongs to success. They never shewed themselves capable of commanding victory, either by their dispositions, their courage, or their enterprise. Their cautious march, notwithstanding their immense superiority, easily denotes what would have been their fate, had the Chief of the army of the East been worthy of commanding it.'

To this mis-statement, Sir Robert Wilson thus replies, laudably jealous for the honour of our army and for truth:

'Is there an officer in the French service bold and wicked enough to say, that on the day of landing (the folly of which assertion is palpable, except they were packed as old clothes) the British troops lay down in the boats; that, on the 13th, he saw two battalions throw down their arms; that, on the 21st, the 42d regiment crawled under the cavalry *ventre à terre?* For General Reynier's character one ought to be produced; but now General Reynier should tax him with the falsehoods, and consider him as the person who has exposed his reputation to no small obloquy, and himself to the indignation of all honest men. The concluding assertion of General Reynier is his own, "that the English neither shewed courage, boldness, or talents in the field;" the mean insinuation must also be his, that the merit of the landing was only due to the navy. General Reynier, when he commanded the right of the French army, on the 21st, and so strictly adhered in all emergencies to the general orders of keeping that right refused, must have thought that the English would fight for their ground; and General Lanusse's division will say that he acted as if he did; but perhaps the dispatch stating the fact has goaded a sore, and this rendered him furious. The British sailors will not accept his compliment, for their fame does not require the whole portion of laurels where others shared in acquiring them.

'But after all, with every attempt to tarnish the glory of that expedition, what does General Reynier recite? An uninterrupted series of successes on the part of the English; victory in every battle to them, and general disaster to the French. *Le feu bien nourri par les Anglois, la cavalerie Française culbutée, l'infanterie repoussée*, are the details of each action. It is true he makes the English force much more considerable; but when military men learn that the British army amounted only to 14,391 men, including all kinds and descriptions of people, I believe they will agree with me, that such a number could not afford more than 12,000 effective men. The battle of the 21st, therefore, after deducting the loss on the 8th and 13th, 1800 men, and 108 officers, killed and wounded, the 90th, and 26th dragoons, at Aboukir, could not have been fought with much more than 9000. Thus the world may judge for themselves if these troops behaved well.'

The indignation of our brave troops may well be roused at some parts of General Reynier's account; while at the same time they are generous enough to admit that, had the French army of the East been headed by a more able commander than Menou, their conquest of Egypt would have been attended with more difficulties. The remarks of Sir R. Wilson, here given, are only part of an account of the Egyptian Campaign, which he is preparing for the press.

Art. X. *The Poetical Works of the late Thomas Little, Esq.* Second Edition. Crown 8vo, 7s. Boards. Carpenter. 1802.

It is with unusual pleasure that we here find ourselves called to review the productions of a real favourite of the Muses. We acknowlege in these poems the fire of genius, the feeling, the taste, and the precision, which are characteristic of those authors

> "Who, from the Ancients, like the Ancients write."

Our poet is indeed a pupil of certain authors who are not famed for their morality; and it is probably on this account that a fictitious name appears in the title-page *: but, although some of the poems may be such as rigid virtue must disapprove, decency of expression has been carefully consulted; and nothing occurs which can disgust a general reader of poetry. In this respect, the author has greatly the advantage of his favourite Catullus, who sometimes laid aside the fine gentleman, and used language too gross to admit of apology.

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* The real author of these poems is said to be a Gentleman who lately favoured the world with a translation of Anacreon.

The Preface, which contains an account of the pretended Mr. Little, expresses the author's opinion of the Latin erotic poets, in a strain of criticism which our learned readers will be glad to see:

'Mr. Little died in his one-and-twentieth year; and most of these Poems were written at so early a period, that their errors may claim some indulgence from the critic; their author, as unambitious as indolent, scarce [scarcely] ever looked beyond the moment of composition; he wrote as he pleased, careless whether he pleased as he wrote. It may likewise be remembered, that they were all the productions of an age when the passions very often give a colouring too warm to the imagination; and this may palliate, if it cannot excuse, that air of levity which pervades so many of them. The "aurea legge, s'ei piace ei lice," he too much pursued, and too much inculcates. Few can regret this more sincerely than myself; and if my friend had lived, the judgment of riper years would have chastened his mind, and tempered the luxuriance of his fancy.

'Mr. Little gave much of his time to the study of the amatory writers. If ever he expected to find in the ancients that delicacy of sentiment and variety of fancy which are so necessary to refine and animate the poetry of love, he was much disappointed. I know not any one of them who can be regarded as a model in that style; Ovid made love like a rake, and Propertius like a schoolmaster. The mythological allusions of the latter are called erudition by his commentators; but such ostentatious display, upon a subject so simple as love, would be now esteemed vague and puerile, and was even in his own times pedantic. It is astonishing that so many critics have preferred him to the pathetic Tibullus; but I believe the defects which a common reader condemns have been looked upon rather as beauteous by those erudite men, the commentators, who find a field for their ingenuity and research in his Grecian learning and quaint obscurities.

'Tibullus abounds with touches of fine and natural feeling. The idea of his unexpected return to Delia, "Tunc veniam subito*," &c. is imagined with all the delicate ardour of a lover; and the sentiment of "nec te posse carere velim," however colloquial the expression may have been, is natural, and from the heart. But, in my opinion, the Poet of Verona possessed more genuine feeling than any of them. His life was, I believe, unfortunate; his associates were wild and abandoned; and the warmth of his nature took too much advantage of the latitude which the morals of those times so criminally allowed to the passions. All this depraved his imagination, and made it the slave of his senses: but still a native sensibility is often very warmly perceptible; and when he touches on pathos, he reaches the l immediately. They who have felt the sweets of return to a h from which they have long been absent, will confess the beaut those simple, unaffected lines:

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* 'Lib. i. Eleg. 3.'

> ' O quid solutis est beatius curis!
> Cum mens onus reponit, ac peregrino
> Labore fessi venimus Larem ad nostrum,
> Desideratoque acquiescimus lecto. CARM. xxxii.'

We should be happy to make farther extracts, if our li permitted, from this preface, which is written with great t and feeling.

The general character of these verses is tenderness and s plicity;—genuine simplicity, which gives force to express by divesting language of every superfluous decoration. M of the poems also discover correct taste: but, in a few stances, the author has sacrificed at the shrine of modern surdity; we allude particularly to the *Nursery tales, the Sh Reuben and Rose,* and *the Ring*; and we hope that they will be suffered to disgrace another edition.

We remark an appearance of something dramatic, in succession of these pieces; they refer to the commencem and termination of several amours, some of which are perh not imaginary: at least, we fancy that we can perceive some passages the *veræ voces, pectore ab imo.*

From such a number of compositions, nearly equal in r rit, we shall select a few, which will give our readers a co plete idea of the author's manner. The first which we sl quote will shew the pathetic turn of an unexceptionable pie

' ELEGIAC STANZAS.

' Sic juvat perire.

' When wearied wretches sink to sleep,
How heavenly soft their slumbers lie!
How sweet is death to those who weep,
To those who weep and long to die!

' Saw you the soft and grassy bed,
Where flowers deck the green earth's breast?
'Tis there I wish to lay my head,
'Tis there I wish to sleep at rest!

' Oh! let not tears embalm my tomb,
None but the dews by twilight given!
Oh! let not sighs disturb the gloom,
None but the whispering winds of heaven!'

The following Song is remarkable for the tenderness a delicacy of the thought and expression:

'To Mrs. ———.

'Sweet Lady! look not thus again;
Those little pouting smiles recall
A maid, remember'd now with pain,
Who was my love, my life, my all!

'Oh! while this heart delirious took
Sweet poison from her thrilling eye,
Thus would she pout, and lisp, and look,
And I would hear, and gaze, and sigh!

'Yes, I did love her—madly love—
She was the dearest, best deceiver!
And oft she swore she'd never rove;
And I was destin'd to believe her!

'Then, Lady, do not wear the smile
Of her whose smile could thus betray:
Alas! I think the lovely wile
Again might steal my heart away.

'And when the spell, that stole my mind,
On lips so pure as thine I see,
I fear the heart which she resign'd
Will err again, and fly to thee!'

If we cannot praise the next specimen for its morality, we may fairly commend its elegance:

'Sympathy. To Julia.

'——— sine me sit nulla Venus. Sulpicia.

'Our hearts, my love, were doom'd to be
The genuine twins of Sympathy;
They live with one sensation:
In joy or grief—but most in love,
Our heart-strings musically move,
And thrill with like vibration.

'How often have I heard thee say,
Thy vital pulse shall cease to play
When mine no more is moving!
Since now to feel a joy *alone*
Were worse to thee than feeling none—
Such sympathy in loving!

'And, oh! how often in those eyes,
Which melting beam'd, like azure skies
In dewy vernal weather;
How often have I raptur'd read
The burning glance, that silent said,
"Now, love, we feel together!"'

Some of the antient English Poets are said to have been regarded models by the present author; and we can clearly trace him, in some instances, to Donne, the merit of whose fine thoughts is obscured to most readers by the affected closeness of his style.

The hint of the following beautiful little poem seems to have been taken from one of the Basia of Secundus:

' Julia's Kiss.

' When infant Bliss in roses slept,
Cupid upon his slumber crept,
And while a balmy sigh he stole
Exhaling from the infant's soul,
He smiling said, " With this, with this
I'll scent my Julia's burning kiss!"

' Nay more, he stole to Venus' bed,
Ere yet the sanguine flush had fled,
Which Love's divinest, dearest flame
Had kindled through her panting frame.
Her soul still dwelt on memory's themes,
Still floated in voluptuous dreams,
And every joy she felt before
In slumber now was acting o'er.
From her ripe lips which seem'd to thrill
As in the war of kisses still,
And am'rous to each other clung,
He stole the dew that trembling hung,
And smiling said, " With this, with this
I'll bathe my Julia's burning kiss!"

We observe a few epigrams, among the other pieces, and we do not consider them as remarkably happy. The author's *merit* appears to us to consist more in tender expression than in point: but there is an exception to this remark in one of these satirical compositions:

' To the large and beautiful Miss ———.

' In allusion to some Partnership in a Lottery Share.

' Impromptu.

' In wedlock a species of lottery lies,
Where in blanks and in prizes we deal;
But how comes it, that you, such a *capital prize*,
Should so long have *remain'd in the wheel?*

' If ever, by Fortune's indulgent decree,
To me such a ticket should roll;
A *sixteenth*, Heav'n knows! were sufficient for *me*,
For what could I do with the *whole?*'

It is impossible to read this elegant volume without feeling an interest in the literary career of so promising an author. We shall expect much from his future productions; and we shall particularly hope to see them chastened in their tendency by the improvement of his taste. Without pretending to play the *rigidi Catones*, it is allowable to express our regret that a writer who possesses such talents for pleasing should publish any thing which delicacy and morality forbid us entirely to approve.

Art. XI. *Letters upon the Atlantis of Plato*, and the Ancient History of Asia: Intended as a Continuation of Letters upon the Origin of the Sciences, addressed to M. de Voltaire. By M. Bailly. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Wallis, &c. 1801.

The original publication of these curious letters was reviewed in our 60th Vol. (Appendix,) p. 489.; and to that criticism we refer those readers, who may now wish to know our opinion of the arguments and inferences of the French philosopher.

Prefixed to the present translation, is a short account of the author, which closes with the sad and pathetic narrative of his death; and since the rage of parties is now happily laid asleep, few will be able to refrain from shedding a tear over the fate, the very miserable fate, of the great astronomer Bailly. This memoir is principally extracted from the *éloge* given in a volume of the Transactions of the National Institute, and was mentioned in our 34th Vol. N. S. p. 308.: but, as we were then pressed for room, we dismissed these particulars more slightly than we could have wished, and shall therefore now extract a few additional passages:

'Bailly, born at Paris, in the year 1736, of a family in which the keepership of the pictures in the Louvre seemed hereditary, was at first destined to the profession of a painter; but the prospect of consuming many years in fruitless manual labour, without a certainty that his genius should ever reach the sublime conceptions of a Corregio, or a Raphael, discouraged him, and he threw himself into the arms of literature, more attractive to a young mind, since it promises the fruition of the palm the same day it is sown.

'The first essays of Bailly consisted in tragedies: Daguesseau, Fenelon, the author of *Emile*, had composed in that department; and we are fain to quote such names when we happen to fail. The young sage, contenting himself with having made trial of his powers in silence, did not once present himself in the arena; and if he had the confidence to write for the stage at twenty years, he had the good sense at forty to throw his compositions into the fire.

'The palm of eloquence had likewise its attractions for our young candidate for fame; and though in that career he never attained the most brilliant success, he found it more difficult to abandon its pursuit. It is well known that he wrote an éloge of Corneille which contended, though in vain, for the prize in the academy of Rouen;

that he composed the praises of Charles the Vth, and Moliere, without being crowned by the French academy; and that he never obtained a prize but at Berlin, for a life of Leibnitz, which, however, was inferior to that of Fontenelle. We perceive rather more promising seeds of genius in the éloge of Cook and Gresset, as well as in that of his friend and master, La Caille; and he wrote a piece which balanced the claims of Condorcet for the office of secretary to an academy.

'In short, Bailly, after long groping in the dark, in order to hit upon his proper talent, ceased from the inquiry. If it required but the accelerated fall of an apple to lead Newton to the system of gravitation, a glance of the eye, cast by our sage upon a catalogue of zodiacal stars, executed by La Caille, sufficed to make him an astronomer.

'Astronomy may be regarded as the geography of the heavens, where, from certain known positions, the intelligent artist is in a condition to deduce others to which he is a stranger. Project an astronomer to the centre of unbounded space, he will there be anxious to reach the circumference. The slightest path he is able to discover in the firmament invites him to find it a communication with all the great routes. We may say of the philosopher, that his ambition is stimulated by discoveries, as that of the warrior is by conquests. Bailly was ambitious, but in the manner of a Halley and a Tyco Brahé: he only aspired to lay down the general map of worlds, leaving to an Alexander the heroic insanity of achieving their conquest.

'A position of high importance, which Bailly discovered in celestial geography, is that of the satellites of Jupiter. The masses of these secondary stars seem so little susceptible of calculation, the astonishing variety of their motions is so unfavourable to the astronomer who would determine their inequalities, that even to the middle of the present century, nobody had attempted to apply the eternal law of Newton to the mutual attractions of those planets. Bailly, with the assistance of the theory of Clairault, and the ingenious method of Fouchy, respecting the use of the telescope, and still more from the resources of his own genius, computed, with singular success, the disturbances of Jupiter's satellites; determined their diameter, as well as the duration of their immersions; constructed tables of their motions; and concluded the whole by a history of this curious part of astronomy. This most laborious pursuit, which gave occasion to three memoirs, employed him for the space of nine years; that is to say, from 1762 to 1771. After all, however, this is but a point in the general map of the heavens; and it is evident, that, in order to complete it, as projected by Bailly, he ought to have lived, not to the age of a man, but that of a planet.

'Our philosopher, who imagined he had made the step of a giant, and had not changed his horizon, alarmed at the immensity of the career still before him, resolved to try what he could build on the basis of new ideas. In this view, he wished to make himself master of all ancient as well as modern discoveries in the southern regions of the firmament; and such was the origin of his master-piece, his admirable *History of Astronomy*.

'Bailly takes up the science from what he terms its cradle, and conducts it by a chain of facts, and luminous reasoning, to that point of time when the sublime theory of Newton came to be regarded as the gospel of Europe. This work, at once profound and elementary, instructs the man of reading and reflection, while it excites a taste for the subject in the most vulgar mind, to which it is wholly new; besides, it is written in that picturesque style which gives animation to every thing it touches, and which has been looked for in the history of all the sciences, ever since the public were charmed with the *Nature* of Buffon, and the *Academy* of Fontenelle.

'It is in this History of Astronomy that we find the germ of what some have called a philosophical paradox, but to which Bailly owed, more than to his other works, a part of his celebrity. I allude to that ingenious system in which he maintains, contrary to the popular opinion, that the earth was enlightened, as well as peopled; from north to south.

'Bailly sent his Astronomy to Ferney. The illustrious philosopher, who wielded from this retreat the sceptre of opinion over the whole of literary Europe, was not a little astonished at the novelty of a system which threatened to annihilate his Brahman's. He communicated his objections to Bailly in the form of doubts. The historian of worlds replied; and this was the origin of letters on Plato's island of Atlantis! letters which his eminent ingenuity, learning, and graces of style, raised in the estimation of the public to the level of the Lettres Persannes of Montesquieu.

'The great popularity, however, of his letters on the Atlantis, was accompanied with a storm. An information was lodged with a pusillanimous government against the author, for having substituted a system of cosmogony of his own in place of that of Moses. This imputation, which Bailly ought to have despised, gave him uneasiness: he was willing to indulge, as a philosopher, in his opinions, but he had no desire to carry the badge of the sect about with him. He denounced the periodical writer who had excited the terrors of fanaticism, and denounced him with such warmth, that the keeper of the seals gave notice to the editor that he should retract. This trait, perhaps of weakness on the part of the historian of astronomy, hushed the storm; and the grand inquisitor Sequier returned the interrogatories which he had prepared, into his port folio.'—

'His theory of Jupiter's satellites, which obtained him admission into the Academy of Sciences so early as the year 1763; the rich erudition of his notes in the History of Astronomy, which gave him a right to that of *belles lettres*; together with the brilliant colouring of his style; opened to him the doors of the French Academy.'—

'Bailly's genius slumbered, but its slumbers were broken from time to time, even during the triumph of his *prudence* *, by the publication of some good works; I mean by his two Reports on the hospital of the *Hotel dieu*, on the folly of the long famous doctrine of *Mesmerism* †; and above all, by his *Indian and Oriental Astronomy*; a work which, for depth and ingenuity of research, is worthy of Feret, but which he was incompetent to write, since he had never, like the disciple of Socrates, sacrificed to the graces.'

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* See the anecdote recorded in the article before cited in M. R. Vol. xxxiv. N. S.

'† From Mesmer, the original author of Animal Magnetism.'

Then follows a concise record of M. Bailly's exchange of the science of astronomy for that of politics, with a narrative of his barbarous treatment on the scaffold, and the termination of his sufferings by the guillotine.

To proceed now to the more immediate business of this article, which is to consider the work before us as a translation; and its claim to distinction for exhibiting the sense of the original, faithfully, clearly, and with force or elegance. To translate with *all* these excellencies is difficult; to translate with *some* is no easy task; and, after having read a considerable portion of the present version, and compared it with the original, we think that, on the whole, it is ably executed: but a few inaccuracies, or sentences which might easily be amended, have presented themselves to our notice. For instance: the words *Exposition des idées qui seront développées*, &c. are not happily translated by *Exposition of the ideas which* will be *developed*, &c. *Will* is certainly the literal translation of *seront:* but, as employed in the above sentence, this word displeases the ear of an English reader.—P. 51. *Which I do not despair I shall be able*, &c. is a very inelegant translation of *Voila une grande question qu'il ne me parait pas impossible de resoudre.* Again, *Les enfans tracent des lignes sur le sable, mais quand on y voit des figures de géometrie, on dit que ce sont des pas d'homme:* this is a very perspicuous sentence, but not so is the translation: *Children draw lines upon the sand, but when* it *presents us with figures of geometry, we say these are footsteps of men.*—*Beaux instrumens* do not mean *handsome* instruments, but good, or *tolerably good* instruments.

The repetition of the word *over* renders the following sentence ambiguous and inelegant; 'National pride and jealousy keep watch on the frontiers *over* opinion, which would be inclined to *over*leap them, like the officers of the king's revenue *over* contraband goods.'—The original is: *L'orgueil et la jalousie nationale veillent aux frontieres sur les opinions qui tendent a les franchir, comme les preposés des souverains sur les marchandises prohibees.*—In a note at the beginning of the 2d volume, the translator renders *traces de l'esprit* by 'vestiges of *wit:*' the meaning of *wit* is so much changed from its antient import, that it is not *judicious* to use it in the way in which the translator has applied it in the above passage; where *esprit* means (we apprehend) ingenuity or cleverness.—Page 8. (vol. 2.) 'If we love Belisarius, we *will* hate his enemies.' This is not the proper translation of, *En aimant Belisaire, on hait ses ennemis.*—P. 344. the translation has, *suit* of truths.

These are inaccuracies which we think it our duty to remark: but it is some commendation of the translator's performance, that more numerous or more flagrant instances have not presented themselves to our notice.

ART. XII. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By the Rev. T. Baseley, A. M. Chaplain to the Bishop of Lincoln, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1801.

READERS of sermons are not in the same predicament with hearers: the former may comment on the preacher *chemin faisant*, without any violation of the rules of decorum, and may say with 'Squire Western *, " A'tn't in pulpit now: when art a got up there, I *never mind what dost say*:" but the auditor is carried on with the general impression of the delivery, and has little time for examination and reflection. We are surprized that, when the clergyman addresses himself to Christians from the press, this obvious difference between preaching and publishing (to which we have before alluded) does not produce a more general effect. Had Mr. Baseley attended to it, the discourses before us would probably have been less open to remark: for he does not appear to want talents, but not to have considered sufficiently that more was necessary to attract the public approbation than to satisfy the generality of congregations.

Of the twelve discourses which compose this volume, the 1st and 2d treat on the Belief in God, and the Works which should follow it: the 3d, on the Law to which our first Parents were subject in Paradise: 4th and 5th, on Liberty and Necessity: 6th, on the Doctrine of the Holy Trinity: 7th, on the Jews' Reproach of our Saviour, and on John the Baptist: 8th, on Pilate's Question, " What is Truth?" 9th, on fearing the Reproach of men: 10th, on the Duty of Mercifulness: 11th, on the Judgment to come; and the 12th, on Peace with God.

Mr. Baseley is very liberal in his declamations against philosophers and freethinkers. In the 3d Sermon, he observes that,

> 'The peculiar temptation to which the Almighty thought proper to expose our first parents is included in the text: " Of every tree of the garden thou mayest freely eat: but of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil thou shalt not eat of it; for in the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die." But, to make the eating of an *apple* the first great condition of happiness or misery, has been objected to by many, and not understood by others. There has been

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* See Fielding's Tom Jones, book xv chap. v.

a set of men in all ages, we may remark, who, not satisfied with their own opinion, have been ever happy to distrust the common belief of mankind, and contradict the general sense of the world. *Truth*, they tell us, is their grand object, at whose sacred shrine alone they bow. But there may be other motives assigned for their conduct, than the pure love and abstracted cultivation of truth. Vanity and fear, in matters of divine revelation, operate very powerfully upon the human mind. Besides, to favour the solicitation of every base and grovelling appetite, or at least to free ourselves from every religious restraint, while we calmly and philosophically profess only the investigation of truth, is an object truly worthy of wicked ambition. But how can the vain reasoner, we may ask, and subtle disputant, distinguish himself, by acquiescing in what the generality of mankind believe as well as he? Alas! here is no prospect of glory: if, indeed, he could start some favourite and novel system, clear away the shades of ignorance, and modestly prove himself the only wise and liberal man, at the same time, too, that he frees himself from all restraint and fear—this would be a fine field for vanity to sport in. Here ambition might raise monuments for all mankind to gaze at, and wickedness and guilt shrink at once from punishment and fear.'

To satisfy, however, those who have chosen to call themselves Deists, the preacher condescends to argue the doctrine of original sin on the sound basis of natural reason. The following is his view of the subject:

'Adam, it is true, was innocent before his disobedience; but this *innocence*, or negative virtue, must not be mistaken for perfection; for every man is *innocent*, that is, *free from* guilt, before he has committed some actual crime: but there is great difference between a being who, though he has committed no evil, is, notwithstanding, liable to do it every hour, from the frailty of his nature; and one who, from the perfection of his nature, cannot fall, and is in no danger from temptation.

'With this view of things, sin, therefore, they believe, originated in Adam, only as he was the first man, and devolved from him, the father of us all, as the natural consequence only of the imperfections of human nature. But Adam could not derive any infirmities from creatures like himself, since he was the founder of the human race. The weaknesses which *he* possessed were then the necessary characteristics of his nature: therefore *hereditary* corruption could not be imputed to him; but, ever since, we, his posterity, may be justly said to inherit the corruption of our father: and this, perhaps, may be allowed to be at least a rational account of what divines have thought proper to call original, or birth-sin:—but speculative articles of faith and doctrine, not immediately necessary to salvation, I offer with the utmost diffidence and humility.'

This explanation obviates some difficulties, but it exposes the absurdity of the phrase *original sin*. With another doctrine of the Church, the preacher is not so fortunate in Sermon 6.

It may be admitted that 'the great Author of the universe hath scattered his *mysteries* over the whole face of the creation; which at least have this good effect, we can perceive, though we may not be able to discover any other—they serve to remind us of our *inferiority*, and teach us to moderate the arrogance and pride of *human nature*:'—but what is this to the purpose? The question respects not the mysteriousness or incomprehensibility of the doctrine, but whether it is warranted by the Sacred Scriptures. We have no inclination to revive a controversy which we are happy in thinking is, by general consent, at rest: but, if incomprehensibility be no objection against the tenet for which Mr. B. contends, it is with an ill grace that he censures transubstantiation as 'a monstrous doctrine.'—We concur with him, however, in what follows:

> 'But, if we wish to separate the wicked schemes of policy from the pure ordinances of God, let us have recourse to the Holy Scriptures; let us not cavil at words, nor at certain expressions, which at this time of day, perhaps, we cannot understand, and the general intention of the whole system will be easily understood; let all human institutions be laid aside; and let the holy Gospel speak for itself.'

From the last Sermon, on Peace with God, we shall take one passage as no unfair specimen of the style of these discourses:

> 'We may extend our views into those glorious regions which revelation has disclosed, and rest assured that the great day of retribution will in due time arrive, when the plans of infinite justice shall be perfectly understood, and when it shall fully appear to our more enlarged minds, that the great Creator has neither done nor permitted any thing unworthy of himself. Under every affliction of Providence, and misfortune of life, this will be the good man's never-failing comfort and support. His own reason, too, will convince him, that misery is necessary to the existence of practical virtue; and this will farther contribute to make every burden still lighter. He knows that, without affliction, no one could discover resignation to the divine will, and unless misfortune had required assistance, no one could have given proof of friendship; without poverty and distress, no one could indulge the kind emotions of charity and pity; and without difficulty and danger, fortitude and courage would have been words without a meaning.'

On the whole, these Sermons must be considered as rather declamatory than argumentative; and though they may be approved by a fashionable audience, when aided by a good delivery, they are not, in our judgment, altogether suited for the closet.

Art. XIII. *The Works, in Natural History, of the late Rev.* Gilbert White, *A. M.* Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford: Comprising the Natural History of Selborne; the Naturalist's Calendar; and Miscellaneous Observations, extracted from his Papers.—To which are added, a Calendar and Observations, by W. Markwick, Esq. F.L.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. White. 1802.

EVERY lover of natural history would anticipate, with satisfaction, the appearance of any additional papers from the pen of the late respectable naturalist of Selborne; and though Mr. White's leisure and well-known love of research had led us to expect a more ample publication, we are happy to learn that the valuable pieces announced in the title have been collected by a kinsman, and revised by the hand of Dr. Aikin.

Having already noticed *the Natural History of Selborne*[*], and the *Naturalist's Calendar*, accompanied by the *Miscellaneous Observations*[†], we need now only intimate the slight alterations or additions which have been adopted in the present volumes.

In the compass of two short pages, we are informed that the author was the oldest son of John White of Selborne, Esq.—that he was born 18th July 1720—entered at Oriel College, Oxford, 1739—elected fellow in 1744—received his degree of master of arts in 1746—and was admitted one of the senior proctors of the University in 1752.

> 'Being of an unambitious temper, and strongly attached to the charms of rural scenery, he early fixed his residence in his native village, where he spent the greater part of his life in literary occupations, and especially in the study of nature. This he followed with patient assiduity, and a mind ever open to the lessons of piety and benevolence which such a study is so well calculated to afford. Though several occasions offered of settling upon a college living, he could never persuade himself to quit the beloved spot, which was, indeed, a peculiarly happy situation for an observer. He was much esteemed by a select society of intelligent and worthy friends, to whom he paid occasional visits. Thus his days passed, tranquil and serene, with scarcely any other vicissitudes than those of the seasons, till they closed at a mature age on June 26, 1793.'

The account of the antiquities of Selborne has been very properly omitted, as unconnected with a work which professes to treat of natural history.

The Naturalist's Calendar appears in the convenient form of columns, and is confronted with another, kept near Battle, in Sussex, by Mr. Markwick.—When we reflect on the comparative vicinity of the two stations, and the unquestioned accuracy

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[*] See M. R. vol. lxxxi. p. 33.

[†] N. S. vol. xx. p. 89.

ervers, the occurrence of disagreements in the parallel
gests the propriety of multiplying similar records in
istricts of the island, before we assume them as the
ork of general principles or theoretical reasonings.
of the miscellaneous observations have already ap-
a separate form: but a few of Mr. Markwick's ad-
ill be found deserving of consideration.—As speci-
that gentleman's manner, we select two brief

Latham observes that "pea-hens, after they have done
metimes assume the plumage of the male bird," and has
ure of the male feathered pea-hen now to be seen in the
Museum; and M. Salerne remarks, that "the hen phea-
n she has done laying and sitting, will get the plumage of
May not this hybrid pheasant (as Mr. White calls it)
of this kind? that is, an old hen pheasant which had just
ssume the plumage of the cock.'—
continually avail themselves of particular and unusual cir-
s to procure their food; thus wagtails keep playing about
and legs of cattle as they feed, in quest of flies and other
ich abound near those animals; and great numbers of them
close to the plow to devour the worms, &c. that are
by that instrument. The red-breast attends the gardener
ing his borders; and will, with great familiarity and tame-
out the worms, almost close to his spade, as I have fre-
en. Starlings and magpies very often sit on the backs of
deer to pick out their ticks.'

mmary of the weather, from 1768 to 1792 inclusively,
minates the work, exhibits a striking picture of our
nate.

whole, we trust that this collection of minutes, the
ctual observation, will be perused with interest both
entific and the more ordinary reader, and will con-
promote the *practical* study of natural history.

V. *A Dialogue on the distinct Characters of the Picturesque
Beautiful.* In Answer to the Objections of Mr. Knight.
d by an Introductory Essay on Beauty; with Remarks on
s of Sir Joshua Reynolds and Mr. Burke upon that Sub-
By Uvedale Price, Esq. 8vo. pp. 229. 3s. 6d. sewed.
1801.

much easier to give a general definition of the
ne than of the Beautiful, and to express the pleasure
derive from the contemplation of certain objects than,
es, to analyze and satisfactorily to account for our
. The least observation will prove that the word
Beauty

Beauty is commonly employed in a very vague sense. It is used, as Mr. Knight has remarked, sometimes "to signify that congruity and proportion of parts, which in composition pleases the understanding; sometimes those personal charms, which excite animal desires between the sexes; and sometimes those harmonious combinations of colours and smells, which make grateful impressions upon the visual or olfactory nerves. It often happens too, in the laxity of common conversation or desultory writing, that the word is used without any pointed application to either, but with a mere general and indistinct reference to what is any ways pleasing."

Mr. Price, having bestowed much attention on the subject of Beauty, especially as it respects landscape and rural scenery, endeavours to shew in what the essence of beauty consists; and to explain the true nature of the *Picturesque*, as distinguished both from the Sublime and the Beautiful. He begins with exhibiting an abridgement of Mr. Burke's system; which, turning on the two principles of self-preservation and society, considers, first, whatever is calculated in any way to excite the ideas of pain and danger:—that is to say, whatever is in any sort terrible, or connected with terrible objects, as a source of the *sublime*. Hence the passion excited by the great and sublime in nature, when those causes operate most powerfully, is astonishment. *Beauty*, according to him, results from the social principle; and he therefore applies the term Beauty to such qualities as induce in us a sense of tenderness and affection, or some other passion nearly resembling them. Thus he observes.

> 'Sublime objects are vast in their dimensions; beautiful ones comparatively small: beauty should be smooth and polished; the great, rugged, and negligent: beauty should shun the right line, yet deviate from it insensibly: the great in many cases loves the right line, and when it deviates, makes a strong deviation: beauty should not be obscure; the great ought to be dark and gloomy: beauty should be light and delicate; the great ought to be solid, and even massive.'

Some have objected to Mr. Burke's definition of Beauty as too limited: but Mr. Price contends for this limitation *, especially as his object is to illustrate a third source of pleasure, distinct both from the sublime and the beautiful, termed the *Picturesque.*

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* He argues, that 'the terms which answer to beauty and beautiful in all languages, however vaguely and licentiously employed in common use, yet, in their strict and proper sense, must have nearly the same meaning: they must refer in general to objects in their most perfect, finished, and flourishing state; and among them, to those particular combinations of form, which, from attentive and enlightened observation and experience, have been discovered to be more complete in those qualities, which are found to constitute beauty in general.'

Sir Joshua Reynolds's position that "the most general form of nature is the most beautiful," Mr. P. imagines must relate to a supposed central form, (not to such as actually exist,) or that Sir Joshua's meaning must be different from that which his words seem to express. At all events, it is too vague to serve for a definition.

After having discussed the principles of Mr. Burke and Sir Joshua, the author thus concludes his Introductory Essay:

'If it appear, that those qualities which are supposed to constitute the beautiful, are in all objects chiefly found to exist at that period, when nature has attained, but not passed, a state of perfect completion, we surely have as clear, and as certain principles on this, as on many other subjects, where little doubt is entertained. There seems, however, to be this difference in regard to our ideas of the sublime, and of the beautiful. Those objects which call forth our wonder, are rare; and their rarity is indeed one cause of their effect: the term sublime is therefore less frequently misapplied. Those, on the other hand, which create our pleasure, are comparatively common and familiar; and as we are apt to give the name of beauty to all objects which give us pleasure, however different from each other in their qualities, or character, our notions of beauty, and our application of the term, have been proportionably lax and indistinct. To give them a just degree of precision, it therefore was not sufficient to point out what in its strict acceptation is beautiful; it was likewise necessary to account for the pleasure which we receive from numberless objects, neither sublime, nor beautiful, yet well entitled to form a separate class; and this I have endeavoured to do, in my Essays on the Picturesque.'

This Dialogue was written in answer to a note inserted in the 2d edition of Mr. Knight's poem intitled *The Landscape*; in which he gave it as his opinion that the distinction, which his friend Mr. Price makes between the Beautiful and the Picturesque, is an imaginary one. To illustrate his idea of the Picturesque, and its distinct character, he supposes two of the interlocutors in the Dialogue to be very conversant in all that relates to nature and painting; one, who is called Howard, a partizan of Mr. Knight; the other, named Hamilton, attached to Mr. Price's opinions. To these a third is added, Mr. Seymour, who has little acquaintance with the art of painting, or with the application of its principles to that of gardening or natural scenery.—The dialogue is well written; and whatever becomes of the controversy, which is not a very important one, it will do credit to Mr. Price as a scholar and a man of taste.

To exemplify the manner in which the argument is conducted, we transcribe the following passage: in which, speaking of a friend, Seymour says;

'I remember that one of his great arguments was that "his object was beauty alone, and that the improvers of Mr. Brown's school had nothing to do with the picturesque."—

"That one sentence," said Mr. Hamilton, "constitutes the whole of their attack, and their defence; and I am glad you have mentioned it, as it has been thought to contain some argument: but the sophistry of it is so easily pointed out, that you will hardly conceive how it can have imposed on any one. You will observe, that in the first member of this little sentence, beauty is employed to signify whatever pleases, without regard to the manner; for they do not profess to adopt any particular definition, or limitation of the word; and consequently it may include whatever is grand, or picturesque: but then, in the second member, picturesque is used as something contrasted to beauty, which thus, by implication, is confined to one peculiar set of pleasing objects. Now, if the meaning were expressed in words that did not admit of ambiguity, the sophistry would appear at once; for thus it would stand—"the effects which we of Mr. Brown's school mean to produce, are only such as proceed from verdure, smoothness, and flowing lines, which in our idea constitute beauty of scenery; we have nothing to do with irritation of any kind, or degree; or with any of those sources of pleasure, which arise from sudden variety and intricacy, from the contrast of wild and broken scenery, of rocks, cataracts, or abruptness of any kind; or from what is called picturesque composition."

"It must be owned," said Mr. Seymour, "that you have translated them out of their sophistry into plain English: I question, however, whether you will get them to abide by your translation; for it would confine them within stricter limits than they probably would approve of."

"I believe they are aware of it," said Mr. Hamilton; "and certainly such a clear explicit declaration might put a professed improver of that school into a perplexing situation. Supposing, for instance, that he were consulted on the improvements of a place, full of picturesque scenery; but where no art had been employed, though some judicious alterations and communications were wanting: he of course would not like to refuse such an engagement; and yet, if he were a conscientious man, he ought to tell his employer, "all this is out of my line, if you intend to preserve the present wild style of scenery, for I have nothing to do with the picturesque. If you would like to have the whole smoothed and polished, and those irregular trees and thickets made into clumps, I can do it for you according to the most approved method; but as to that rude water-fall, those rocks, the manner of approaching them, and the sort of wild path which you wish to make amidst their intricacies, I really can give you no advice whatever: they are grand, as well as picturesque, and we confine ourselves entirely to the beautiful."

"Of which," said Mr. Howard, "the scene before us is a complete specimen."

"Seymour," said Mr. Hamilton, "you will have hard work, if you attempt to defend this piece of water; Howard and I are firmly united against you, and I am inclined to speak more strongly than he has done; for I remember it in its original, but by no means unpolished state. It was a charming natural meadow, perfectly free from every thing that looked slovenly; but in which several groups of trees, mixed with a few thorns and hollies, had been very judiciously, at least very luckily, suffered to remain. I used to delight in walking along the old pathway: for the most part, it kept very near the water, and every now-and-then passed through one of the thickets, where for a moment you lost sight of the river; the banks of which, though neither high nor rocky, possessed a great deal of pleasing variety. I recollect particularly one projecting part, that was higher than the rest, and most beautifully fringed; and where there were some large stones, on the side, and at the bottom of the bank: I remember it the more, because, from my favourite window in the drawing-room, it appeared with its beautiful reflections, just under the branches of that group of trees, which the old rector and I so much regret. Now, the trees, and the bank, and the pathway, and the thickets, are all gone; and you see how they are replaced, by those clumps, and that naked building, and shaven bank."

It must be remembered that Mr. Knight and Mr. Price are alike enemies to the extreme nicety and smoothness of modern gardening; and in opposition to the dressed appearance which results from well-kept lawns and gravel-walks, they contend for the superior charms resulting from roughness and negligence, as approaching nearer to the sublimer glories of the Picturesque.

ART. XV. *A Journey from Edinburgh through Parts of North Britain:* Containing Remarks on Scotish Landscape; and Observations on rural Economy, Natural History, Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce; interspersed with Anecdotes, Traditional, Literary, and Historical; together with Biographical Sketches, relating chiefly to Civil and Ecclesiastical Affairs, from the Twelfth Century down to the present Time. Embellished with Forty-four Engravings, from Drawings made on the Spot, of the Lake, River, and Mountain Scenery of Scotland. By Alexander Campbell. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 840. 4l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

OUR attention has of late, in several instances, been directed to the subject of Scotish tours; and we have accompanied several writers with pleasure in their excursions to the northern parts of our island. Among others, the Hon. Mrs. Murray * and Mr. Stoddart † recently engaged our notice, and amply repaid our labour; we were gratified by their descriptions, because we found them to be appropriate; and we were improved by their delineations of character, because from experience we acknowleged them to be accurate.—Few countries abound more in bold and picturesque scenery than the Highlands of Scotland; and, as few places are calculated in a greater degree to surprize and delight the traveller, so a just representation of them, proceeding from the joint efforts of the pencil and the pen, cannot fail to impart pleasure. Books of travels have at all times been perused with avidity, and the present prevailing taste for beautiful decorations has given them a more extended circulation and a more interesting appearance: where the powers of the writer are inadequate, the abilities of the artist are called to his aid; and their united exertions produce, as on the present occasion, an agreeable entertainment for the public.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 398.

† See Rev. Vol. xxxvii. N. S. p. 258.

Mr. Campbell is aware that the subject of his work has been pre-occupied by others, and he thus answers the objection which that circumstance might suggest:

'It appeared to me, notwithstanding the numerous writers that of late have directed their attention to the examination of the antiquities, natural history, peculiar customs and manners of the northern section of our island, that many things had escaped their diligence of research, which a native intimately acquainted with the classic ground and historical incidents thereto belonging, as well as with many traditionary particulars about to sink into that oblivion from which they are now snatched, might have it in his power to examine more at leisure than any stranger, how accurate soever, traversing hastily the various districts described in the following journey: in collecting materials for which, I have spared neither time nor labour; and toward a proper selection and arrangement of what I deemed most interesting and valuable, I have done all in my power.

'Aware of that kind of disgust which ceaseless egotism usually excites, I have chosen to appear as seldom as possible in the body of the work; by which means the reader is spared the unnecessary intrusion that too frequently occurs in similar productions. In truth, were I to relate but a small part of the casual incidents connected with the present itinerary, it would swell into many more volumes to very little purpose. But, besides three several excursions made on purpose to take the sketches of the scenery faithfully on the spot, as well as to ascertain from personal survey the present state of rural economy, manufactures, trade, and commerce, I have had, during twenty years of my life, frequent occasion to visit the extensive range through which the traveller is herein directed.

'In treating of many particulars respecting recent occurrences, as well as striking events of more remote periods of Scottish history, it will manifestly appear, that I have delivered my sentiments with that manly freedom which is characteristic of one attached to no party, and independent in his mind,—tempered, however, with due moderation, keeping steadily in view a scrupulous regard to truth wherever it was to be found.

'It will also be seen, that, besides placing many known facts and circumstances in new lights, much original information on a great variety of topics will afford satisfaction to those who find pleasure in somewhat more than mere superficial knowledge.

'This, I trust, will more fully appear in the descriptions, and historical and traditional matter respecting many parts of the highlands; particularly Loch-Kaitrin, and the wilds adjacent; the bishoprick of Dunkeld; the towns of Linlithgow, Stirling, Perth, and Dundee; the ancient archiepiscopal see of St. Andrew's, together with its university; and the present capital of Scotland, Edinburgh; as also a sketch of its university, particularly its celebrated school of medicine from its first establishment to the present period; with an historical outline of the Scotish episcopal church, from the first dawn of the Reformation to the close of the eighteenth century. Beside these different articles, there will likewise be found interspersed throughout, many biographical notices of some importance to those who may be interested in the literary fame of a few Scotsmen whose writings are held in high estimation in the republic of letters. To these notices are added two or three slight sketches respecting the fine arts north of the Tweed; together with the history of the Scotish stage from its origin down to the present time.'

In this statement, it appears to us that the author has made a more comprehensive promise than the contents of his volumes will be found to fulfill. It must be allowed that he has rendered his work amusing: but he has effected this by availing himself largely of the communications of other writers, instead of furnishing much new information on a great variety of topics. We should have been less ready to make this observation, if Mr. C. had not urged a claim to higher praise than the merit of his production will justify: but a compiler is a different character in the department of literature from that of an original writer; and, as he holds a lower station, he must not expect similar distinction: *Ubi ingenio non erat locus, curæ testimonium promeruisse contentus.*

The first place of any consequence at which the author arrives, after his departure from Edinburgh, is Linlithgow, a very antient Burgh, said to have been founded by Edward the First, A. D. 1301.—In the palace in this town, the lovely and unfortunate Mary received her birth; and, to speak of modern events, here the late venerable historian, Dr. Henry, instituted a public library, and bequeathed his valuable collection of books as a foundation for so truly liberal a design.—Many curious particulars are here collected by Mr. Campbell, which impart an interest to the narrative.

We now proceed through Falkirk to Bannockburn, where we halt for a considerable time; Mr. Campbell having introduced (we will not say with what propriety) a sketch of Scottish history, from the death of Robert de Bruce to the imprisonment of Mary Stuart. This sketch offers nothing new, nothing that may not be found in every historian of reputation, who has considered the same period.—From Bannockburn we pass through Stirling to Callander, which is the first village within the confines of the Highlands.—In a long note subjoined to this part of the tour, we find these interesting details:

'*Clackmannan* is the county town of the shire to which it gives its name. Though beautifully situated on a gently inclining eminence, on which the ancient tower of the Bruces appears the most striking object, overlooking the rich and extensive plain through which the Forth winds its waters from the Grampian mountains to the sea; yet the wretched appearance of the houses, with hardly an exception, forms a striking contrast to the beauty and grandeur of the scenery around it. Without trade or artificers, this village is fast hastening to decay. In its neighbourhood are the residences of Mr. Bruce of Kennet, and Mr. George Abercromby of Tullibody, the venerable father of Sir Ralph Abercromby, Commander in chief of the military forces of North Britain. Mr. Bruce's house was lately built, and is in a style of elegance and simplicity that marks the taste and judgment of its owner. Brucefield, the residence of Sir Ralph Abercromby's father, has nothing either of convenience or ornament to recommend it to notice: but the venerable father of the British General, now in the ninety-fifth year of his age, may be mentioned with regard and respect. He was born on his paternal estate of Tullibody, in the neighbouring parish (Aloa), in the year 1705, was called to the Scotish bar in 1728, and is the oldest lawyer living of the college of justice. He enjoys in an uncommon degree the use of all his intellectual faculties, and his active powers in a manner becoming his advanced period of existence. He has also the pleasing and singular felicity of seeing his offspring high in celebrity and in offices of importance. The cup of his enjoyment was lately greatly embittered by the death of his third son, Lord Abercromby, one of the senators of the Court of Session. Yet there remain two others, highly distinguished for their military talents; namely, his second son, Sir Robert, Governor of Bombay, and Commander in chief of the forces in Bengal; and his eldest son and heir, Sir Ralph, whose martial fame is very considerable. As a country gentleman, also, ever attentive to all within the circle of his movement, the latter stands high in the estimation of his neighbours and dependants: and, when his military glory shall have fallen into oblivion, when the art of war shall be heard of as the idle tales of tournaments and feats of chivalry, it will be gratefully remembered, that he was the friend of the poor destitute, the patern of useful knowledge, and the promoter of education among the meanest cottagers: as an instance, it may be mentioned that, in the village of Tullibody, on his paternal estate, a reading school, under his immediate inspection, was established many years back. The sons of our Scotish generalissimo * bid fair to rival their father in respectability and fame. The one is a lawyer and the other a soldier. The interest of the father may conduce to the advancement of the sons, and thus fortune be made to smile and beam around the gray head of the grandfather, as he sinks to repose, full of years, and crowned with honour and prosperity †.

‘ Another venerable personage, who attained a length of days rarely the lot of humanity, deserves particular notice in this place, viz. Katherine Bruce, widow of Henry Bruce, the last laird of Clackmannan. This estate remained in the family of Bruce, in the direct line, from the days of David II. till the year 1772. In the old tower, which still remains, were kept, in the possession of the above mentioned lady, a two-handed sword of large size, and a helmet, said to have been the same that Robert Bruce wore at the battle of Bannockburn; both of which are now possessed by the present earl of Elgin, who disputes the chieftainship of the Bruces with Bruce of Kennet. In Katherine Bruce, who reached her ninety-fifth year, and died in November 1790, the direct line became extinct. “ The memory of this lady (says the author of the Statistical Account of the Parish of Clackmannan) will ever be revered by all who knew her. She was one of those rare characters which at times appear on earth as the ornament of their nature. To all the high sentiments of a dignified and enlightened mind, she added those amiable virtues of the heart which render their influence irresistible. As long as she lived, therefore, the Tower of Clackmannan was frequented by her numerous friends and acquaintances, of various ranks, and of all ages; for her extreme weight of years had not made the least impression upon that happy vivacity and cheerfulness of temper which had always made her company so much the admiration and the delight of her friends. She was formed to support to the last, with undiminished dignity, the character of the race from which she was sprung.” See Stat. Acc. vol. xiv. And for the description of an interesting interview between this venerable descendant of *the Bruce* and the late celebrated Ayrshire bard, Robert Burns, see Currie's Life of Burns, lately published.’

In the account of Dunfermline, the following curious facts will probably amuse our readers:

‘ As an instance of ingenuity in the art of weaving, a shirt wrought in the loom, completely finished and ready for wearing, made about a century ago by an ingenious artisan of this place of the name of Inglis, and still preserved in the chest of the corporation of weavers,

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‘ * Since the above was written, the gallant Sir Ralph has been killed at the head of his army in Egypt.’

‘ † Since writing the above, the following notice of his death appeared in the Edinburgh Courant of June 14, 1800: “ *George Abercromby*, Esq. of Tullibody, died here (Edinburgh) on the 8th instant, in the 95th year of his age.’

deserves particular mention. It is without a seam, and excepting the neck button, was completed without the assistance of the needle. *Vide* Stat. Acc. vol. xiii. p. 433. The present author has seen in the possession of Mr. Robert Stewart, writer in Edinburgh, a man's shirt similar in all respects to that just noticed, wrought in the loom by a young man near Dunkeld, of the name of M'Lauren. What pity so curious an art should be suffered to remain unknown and unheeded! What a saving of time and expence, were it brought into general use. Would it not be an object worthy the attention of government, in clothing the army and navy, to enquire after this young man, so as to encourage him in his art for the purpose of making shirts, &c. for the soldiers and sailors? Perhaps, too, this mode of making body linen might become general, and thus labour be greatly abridged and expence saved.

' Dunfermline has long been celebrated for its sanctity, especially a strict observance of the *Lord's Day*. An instance of this occurred in the autumn of 1796, when two gentlemen were travelling through this town in a picturesque excursion to Glendevon, Stirling, &c. One of them thought it no harm to take his station about a quarter of a mile below the town, in order to take a sketch of its abbey, church, &c.: but no sooner had he pulled out his sketch-book and sharpened his lead pencil, than the police officers with two attendants made their appearance, and challenged the strangers for breaking the *Sabbath*, telling them at the same time, that had it not been that they were unacquainted with the regulations of the town, they would most certainly have been taken into custody and brought before the magistrates. The gentlemen very prudently thanked their monitors, and quietly withdrew, leaving Dunfermline without farther violating its immaculate sanctity and *beauty of holiness*. It is not unlikely that the citizens, proud in the remembrance that the pious Queen of Malcolm Canmore, to whom their church is dedicated, "restored the observance of Sunday, an institution (says Lord Hailes) no less admirable in a political than in a religious light," deem it an honourable and indispensable duty to adhere strictly to so valuable a blessing thus restored by an inhabitant at so remote a period. There are at present a variety of religious communities in Dunfermline: besides two established clergymen, there are six others, viz. one, who belongs to the established church, officiates in a chapel of ease, one in a chapel of relief, three belong to the Burghers, and one is a preacher among the Antiburgher sect. The celebrated Ralph Erskine, author of "Gospel Sonnets," and other works, had a meeting house built here in 1740. In October 1790, one of the clergymen of this parish died in the ninety-second year of his age, having officiated as a preacher of the gospel for upwards of half a century. *Vide* Stat. Acc. of Dunfermline, p. 445. One of the strenuous supporters of Knox and the reformation of religion, "*David Fergussone, minister of the Evangell at Dunfermline*," was the compiler of a curious collection of Latin and Scottish proverbs, now rarely to be met with. A sermon of this zealous reformer, preached on the 13th of January 1571, before the regent (the earl) Moray and the nobility, in the kirk of Leith, is preserved in the

Lawyer's Library in Edinburgh. In this singular piece of declamation, the preacher complains loudly of the shameful neglects of schools and churches, and more especially of the misapplication of tithes.'

The author's powers of description will appear in no unfavourable point of view, in his account of the Rumbling Brig and the Caldron Linn, which we shall therefore extract:

'Most of the tract of country which we traverse from Kinross to the Crook of Devon is a bleak dreary moor, flat and extensive, covered with heath, and seemingly very little susceptible of cultivation. As we approach nearer to the Crook of Devon, the ascent, which is gradual the whole way from Kinross, becomes pretty elevated. We may, as we pass along, observe the streamlets that descend the hills, and the springs that here and there appear, taking different directions, some running down the vale of Devon, and others toward Lochleven, whence, in times of great swells of the rivulet which supplies the Crook of Devon with water, running eastward, the char ascend, and find their way into the Devon by means of a communication with it and this mountain-stream near its origin.

'*The Falls of the Devon* are worthy of particular regard in the estimation of the lover of Scotish landscape. The Devon has its source among the Ochil hills, and runs in an easterly direction for eight miles; then taking a circuit on its leaving *the Gates of Muchart*, in its descent from the mountains round the Crook of Devon, it hurries rapidly through rocky chasms, the principal of which are the Caldron-linns; thence it takes a westerly direction through the beautiful vale of Devon, where, in peaceful silence, it surrenders itself to the Forth four miles to the west of Clackmannan, whence it is for a short way navigable

'Passing through the village called the Crook of Devon, we keep the river on our left for about a mile, and then descend along its rocky bed, when we soon approach *the Falls of the Devon*, the first of which, called the *De'il's Mill*, is heard, but not seen. This forms the least considerable of the falls. The Devon here falls into an excavation in the solid rock with a *noise* resembling that of water falling on a mill-wheel without ceasing: hence denominated the *De'il's Mill.* Near this spot is a cavern, named the *Pigeon's Cave.* About three hundred and fifty yards lower down the Devon, is a small arch, joining a deep and gloomy chasm, called the *Rumbling Brig;* so named from the hollow brawlings of the water in forcing its way among huge fragments of impending rocks; and as it hurries along, boiling and foaming in wildest tumult, the whole scenery adjacent is characteristic of that fantastic rudeness which nature delights in exhibiting amid the roar of cascades and the thunder of cataracts. On looking down the Devon from the bridge, a giddy height, the prospect beneath the eye is truly sublime. The high, projecting, and impending precipices on either hand are wooded in all the capricious variety of form and ramification of hazel, willow, birch, and mountain-ash; from among which, mid-way, along the craggy steeps, daws, kites, and other birds that delight in solitude, are seen sailing in security and freedom. The south bank of th Devon forms the middle ground, and a peep of the Saline hills clos in the distance. The whole is picturesque and magnificent.

‘ In order to command a view of the wooded cliffs over which th *Rumbling Brig* is thrown, it is necessary to come round by th south bank of the river. The best station is about a gun-shot fro the brink of the water, on a gentle eminence immediately opposi the bridge. Here, then, the deep and gloomy chasm through whic the Devon passes is seen in one vast cleft, torn as it were asund by some terrible convulsion of nature. The small arch, half se through the hanging branches that wave wildly over the face of th rugged steeps, gives an air of grandeur suitable to the solemn dignit of the scene. The whole is striking and impressive *.

‘ From the Rumbling Brig to the *Caldron-linns* the Devon gli gently along; when, about a mile below the former, the bed of th river suddenly contracts its channel: as we approach the falls, th distant roar of the waters is imposing and awful. The upper fa is but inconsiderable, yet sufficient to arrest the attention. Soon aft comes into view the chasm through which the river boils and foa from caldron to caldron, for such are the circular excavations call which the incessant workings of the waters in the course of ag have caused: it is terminated by a precipice almost perpendicul over which the whole force of the Devon issues forth in a vast an powerful stream, and suddenly disappears. The thunder of its fa is tremendous. The solid rocks seem to tremble to their centre; an the mind is absorbed in mingled emotions of wonder, admiratio and pleasing terror †.

‘ Descending to the bottom of the fall, we once more conte plate the glories of this sublime scene in a more picturesque point o light. Having come round by the foot of the south bank of th river, and having crossed it in front of the precipice through whic the water gushes forth, we command a complete view of the gre fall of the Devon. A stupendous pile of solid rocks over which i one full, rapid, and powerful torrent the river precipitates itself, presents its rugged front. Fragments lie widely scattered in every direction, that from time to time were torn from the face of the cragg steep; the excavations of which, worn by many a raging flood i the lapse of ages, exhibit an awful aspect in fine harmony with th rude and fantastic forms of the deep and wooded dell through whic the Devon, as if tired of exertion, seeks silence and repose, in it route to gain the windings of the Forth near Stirling.

‘ Pursuing the course of the river, we arrive at the village o Dollar, above which, on a high and almost insulated rock, are th ruins of *Castle Gloom*. The spot on which this castle is situated ap

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‘ * Where the arch is thrown across, the banks are eighty-s feet above the water. The span of the arch is twenty-two feet, an its width twelve feet. It was built in the year 1723, by one Willia Gray, a native of the parish of Saline. See Stat. Acc. vol. i p. 308.’

‘ † The height of the rock is 88 feet, and the fall 44 feet.’

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pears peculiarly wild and inaccessible. The ruins are seen somewhat retired from the rugged steep, lofty and wooded, on either side of which mountain streams descend and unite at its base, brawling among massy fragments of rock. A range of hills, wooded on either hand, rising from the bed of the united stream, almost encompasses the rocky peninsula on which the ruins of the castle appear. Immediately behind, a vast amphitheatre of hill, beautifully sloping, and verdant to the top, adds grandeur to the scene.

‘ On ascending the wooded heights to the ruins of Castle Gloom, looking toward the south, on the vale of Devon, beyond which are the Forth, Stirling castle, and Clackmannan tower, the hills that stretch from the Friths of Forth and Clyde and the adjacent country, a range of vast extent, furnish one of the finest prospects any where to be seen. The ruins of Castle Gloom, together with the wooded banks of each side, form a picturesque foreground.

‘ *Castle-Gloom* (or Castle Campbell) is a place of considerable antiquity. At what period it was first built is uncertain. It appears from charters belonging to the family of Argyle, that the lordship of Campbell, on which the castle stands, was in the possession of that family as far back as the year 1465 [*]; and in 1493, by act of the Scotish parliament, the name of *Castle Gloom* was changed to *Castle Campbell*, by which name it is now generally known. At the era of the Reformation, Archibald the fourth earl of Argyle was the first of our Scotish nobility who publicly renounced the doctrines of the church of Rome. Here, it is said, in the gloomy solitude of this strong-hold, the arch-reformer John Knox passed some time in domestic intercourse with this high-minded, independent assertor of the new opinions, for which many of his name sacrificed their lives, glorying in the cause of liberty and religion, such as they deemed pure and genuine.

‘ In the year 1644, during the unhappy reign of our first Charles, Castle Campbell was burnt to the ground by the Marquis of Montrose, who had espoused the royal cause; since which period it has remained in ruins. The tower is still pretty entire; but the other parts of the buildings are rapidly hastening to total ruin. The castle when entire was completely insulated with a fosse, that joined the inaccessible parts of the deep glen over which this precipice impends, near the brink of which there is a secret stair cut out of the solid rock down to the rivulet, more than a hundred feet from top to bottom, and about six feet wide, called *Kemp's Score*, or *suit*. This passage was for the purpose of procuring water, it is supposed, during a siege. The steps are now almost invisible, owing to their being filled up with earth. The passage is truly frightful to look down into, and one feels little inclination to examine its curious construction.'

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[*] ‘ The author of the Statistical Account of Dollar says, the lands were held by the bishop of Dunkeld: but it is also said that Dollar castle (now Castle Campbell) was given by Shevez, bishop of St. Andrew's, to the earl of Argyle, as a reward for his having been an abettor in the disputed title of precedency between the archbishop of St. Andrew's and the archbishop of Glasgow. Vide Reliquiæ divi Andreæ, p. 48.

In the pages allotted to the consideration of the town of Stirling, of which the Castle is situated on an elevated spot, and commands a view of a fertile and beautiful country, a tribute to the memory of Dr. Doig, late master of the Grammar School there, is with much propriety introduced. He was a learned, ingenious, and worthy character; well known in the literary world by his Letters on the Savage State *, and universally lamented in his neighbourhood; where he had gained the esteem and respect of all his acquaintance by the purity of his life, the simplicity of his manners, and his unremitting exertions for the improvement of the morals and learning of those who were committed to his care.

With some amusing anecdotes of James the Fifth, we must for the present conclude our extracts: which have hitherto been taken from the *notes* at the end of Vol. II.

'James VI. was born in the castle of Stirling, and spent great part of his earlier years under the celebrated George Buchanan, to whose charge he was intrusted. Prince Henry, the son of James, was also born in it. Here it was that James VI. and his mother were crowned; as was his grandfather James V. who afterwards made it a favourite residence during most part of his reign. Many facetious anecdotes of this celebrated monarch are still related in this part of the country; among others, the following. James V. a prince eminent for many good qualities of heart and understanding, was skilled in all the manly exercises of the day, particularly in hunting and hawking. Being once benighted whenout a hunting, and separated from his attendants, he happened to enter a cottage in the midst of a moor at the foot of the Ochil hills, near Aloa, where, unknown, he was kindly received, and entertained in the best manner the hospitably disposed inmates had in their power. In order to regale their unexpected guest, the *gude man* (i. e. landlord, farmer,) desired the *gude wife* to fetch the hen that roosted nearest the cock, which is always the plumpest, best fed, and greatest favourite, for the stranger's supper; which was done with all the goodnature imaginable. The king, highly pleased with his night's lodging, kind, frank reception, and hospitable entertainment, told mine host, at parting, that he should be glad to return his civility, and requested that the first time he came to Stirling he would call at the castle, and inquire for the *gude man of Ballinguich* †, a name by which James facetiously distinguished himself when in disguise he rambled about the country. Donaldson, the landlord, did not fail to call on the

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* See M. R. vol. xiv. N. S. p. 173.

'† *Ballinguich* is that narrow cleft on the north-west between the rock on which the castle of Stirling stands and the rocks immediately adjacent.'

gude man of Ballinguich, when his astonishment at finding that the king had been his guest, afforded no small amusement to the merry monarch and his courtiers; and, to carry on the pleasantry, he was thenceforth dignified by James in person with the title of King of the Moors, which name and designation have descended from father to son ever since, and they have continued in possession of the identical spot, the property of Mr. Erskine of Mar, till very lately, when this gentleman with reluctance turned out the descendant and representative of the King of the Moors, on account of his majesty's invincible indolence and great dislike to reform or innovation of any kind, although, from the spirited example of his neighbour-tenants on the same estate, he is convinced similar exertion would promote his advantage. So much are some kings wedded to the prejudices of their forefathers. *Vide* Stat. Acc. vol. viii. p. 608.

'Another traditional tale of an adventure with a neighbouring king is recorded of this monarch by the genealogist Buchanan of Achmar. "King James V., a very social debonair prince, residing at Stirling in Buchanan of Arnpryor's time, carriers were very frequently passing along the common road, being near Arnpryor's house, with necessaries for the use of the king's family; and he, having some extraordinary occasion, ordered one of these carriers to leave his load at his house, and he would pay him for it; which the carrier refused to do, telling him he was the king's carrier, and his load was for his majesty's use; to which Arnpryor seemed to have small regard, compelling the carrier in the end to leave his load, telling him, if King James was king of Scotland, he was king of Kippen, so that it was reasonable he should share with his neighbour king in some of these loads so frequently carried that road. The carrier representing this usage, and telling the story, as Arnpryor spoke it, to some of the king's servants, it came at length to his majesty's ears, who shortly thereafter, with a few attendants, came to visit his neighbour king, who was in the mean time at dinner. King James having sent a servant to demand access was denied the same by a tall fellow with a battle-ax, who stood porter at the gate, telling him there could be no access till dinner was over. This answer not satisfying the king, he sent to demand access a second time; upon which he was desired by the porter to desist, otherwise he would find cause to repent of his rudeness. His majesty, finding this method would not do, desired the porter to tell his master, that the good man of *Ballingnich* desired to speak with the king of Kippen. The porter telling Arnpryor so much, he in all humble manner came and received the king, and having entertained him with much sumptuousness and jollity, became so agreeable to king James that he allowed him to take so much of any provision he found carrying that road as he had occasion for; and seeing he made the first visit, desired *Arnpryor* in a few days to return him a second at Stirling, which he performed, and continued in very much favour with the king, always thereafter being termed king of Kippen while he lived." See Buchanan of Achmar's Hist. and Geneal. Essays, p. 59, 60. 4to. edit. 1723.

'The *jug*, the legal standard of dry measure in Scotland, is still preserved with due veneration in the council-house of Stirling. The statute furlot must contain the full of this jug, twenty-one times one fourth for wheat, and thirty-one times for barley, malt; and o The measure of length is kept by the burgh of Edinburgh, and burgh of Linlithgow keep the measure of grain. These privik were in ancient times deemed of the first importance. Thus H VII. of England conferred on the city of Winchester the exclu privilege of keeping the standard measure for the whole kingd and presented it with a new set, of elegant workmanship, which still to be seen in the guildhall of that city in the highest preservati

'There are four banking-houses in Stirling, the oldest of wh was established in 1776.'

In another article, we propose to resume our view of this wo

[*To be continued.*]

Art. XVI. *Miscellaneous Translations and Imitations of the Mi Greek Poets.* By J. B. S. Morritt, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. Boards. Payne and Mackinlay. 1802.

The small poems, from which Mr. Morritt has selected t subjects of this little volume, have seldom been more happ turned into modern language than in his translations. The fi piece which occurs is the story of Hero and Leander, from M sæus:

> 'The swimming lover, and the nightly bride;
> How Hero wept, and how Leander died.'

Mr. Morritt has presented this touching poem in a strain of el gant versification, and in general with fidelity to the origina A few lines will afford a specimen of his translation:

> 'The circling year brought round the festal joy,
> To Venus sacred, and her Syrian boy *.
> To this from every isle a mirth-led train
> Crouds in glad numbers to the Sestian plain;
> Hæmonia these, or sea-girt Cyprus pours,
> And every nymph deserts Cythera's towers;
> On Liban's tops no flute's enlivening sound
> Wakes the blithe dance, while incense breathes around,
> And Phrygia there, and there Abydos flies,
> And ev'ry neighb'ring plain deserted lies,
> And every youth with softer passions blest
> Hears the glad call, and comes a welcome guest.
> Still dear to them the festal hour returns,
> But not to heaven alone their incense burns,
> Th' assembled nymphs their am'rous homage *share*,
> And beauty triumphs o'er religious *fear*. †
> 'But Love, when Hero to the fane draws nigh,
> Fires her warm cheek, and lightens in her eye:

'* Adonis.'

† Mr. Morritt is not always sufficiently attentive to purity of rhym

Le

Less bright the ray that gilds the dimpling main
When Cynthia rises on the heavenly plain;
Her snowy cheek with fresh vermilion glows,
And more than emulates the varied rose;
Here bloom the roses in a purer bed,
And tinge each iv'ry limb with dubious red;
But now returning, where she treads the ground,
Flowers at her feet spontaneous rise around,
And every limb where countless graces throng
Disproves the ancient bard's fallacious song.
Three graces only knew the simple strain,
In Hero's laughing eyes a hundred reign;
Had Venus seen her, of her vot'ry proud,
She'd own'd her priesthood, and her charms allow'd,
For far superior o'er the sex she *tower'd*,
And seem'd herself the goddess she *ador'd*.'

The Rape of Europa, from Moschus, is translated with equal spirit and smoothness; and its merit tempts us to trespass farther, perhaps, than we ought, in quoting from so small a volume.

' A golden vase the young Europa bore,
Wond'rous the work, and brilliant was the ore;
The wond'rous work immortal Vulcan gave,
When Libya wed the tyrant of the wave,
To fair Telephăessa next consign'd,
Join'd in their friendships, in their blood too join'd,
From her Europa, by a daughter's claim,
Unmarry'd yet, receiv'd the heavenly frame,
Here many a tale in breathing sculpture told,
Richly relieves th' half animated gold,
Inachian Iŏ here a brutal form,
Plows the wide deep, and dares th' approaching storm;
High on a lofty rock's impending brow
Two figures stand who mark her course below;
Here Jove relenting, with all-pow'rful hand
Restores her shape on Nilus' shelvy sand,
Silver the wave, the heifer seems to move
In ductile brass, in gold th' immortal Jove.
Here mounted high beneath the vase's round
Young Hermes stands, and lightly treads the ground;
Bath'd in his blood beside him Argus lies,
The far-fam'd Argus with his sleepless eyes;
A glittering bird, of various plumage *proud*,
Stalks new created from the traitor's *blood*,
Expands his beauties like some silken sail *,
That courts on summer seas the flagging gale,

'* The image here is different from the original, which it would be unnecessary to notice, except that the author might otherwise have been accused of a mistake, where for the sake of the poetry he made an intentional deviation from the Greek passage.'

Round all the brim the glittering wonder roll'd,
Such, and so rich, was wrought the burnish'd gold.
Soon on the shore the laughter-loving train
Dispute the prizes of the ransack'd plain;
For them the daffodil or violet bloom,
The lily pale, the wild thyme's rich perfume,
For them the crocus breathes its odours round,
And many a flow'r forsakes its native ground;
Still fairest of the troop the princess chose
Th' unrival'd fragrance of the opening rose,
Transcendent charms o'er all her person move,
So Venus triumphs in the court of love.
Ah, careless sports of youth, how soon you past!
Ah, virgin innocence, not doom'd to last!'

The celebrated Monody on the Death of Bion is *imitated*, not translated, in a series of irregular stanzas. This imitation contains some fine passages and beautiful lines, but we think that it deviates materially from the simplicity of the Sicilian muse. We shall leave our readers to judge for themselves, from the imitation of that well known passage, *Αι, αι, αι μαλαχαι μεν*, &c.

' The garden's pride, the firstlings of the year,
Pale primroses and violets strew the ground,
And with'ring droop in spring's meridian reign;
Anon their sweets repair,
Diffusing odours round,
And wake to rapture the reviving plain;
But we, when fate's remorseless pow'r
Hastens th' inevitable hour,
And points the downward path to Pluto's shade,
Heroes and gods resist in vain:
"Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,"
No more we rise again:
For ever and for ever o'er,
The dream of life can cheat no more,
Light lies the green-sward on thy breast;
Chain'd is the tuneful tongue
Where music's sweetest air and pleasures hung,
And fraught with love's ethereal heat,
Thy trembling heart has ceas'd to beat,
By death's cold hand opprest.
Long groans and melancholy sounds succeed,
And drown the sorrows of the Dorian reed.'

We have never seen any imitation of this fine thought, equal to that which occurs in Dr. Beattie's Hermit.

Greatly as we have incroached on the bounds of Mr. Morritt's publication, we must make free with his translation of Moschus's delicious Ode to the Evening Star:

'Hail, Hesperus! bright torch of beauty's queen,
Dear sacred gem of dewy evening, hail!
So shine thy rays above her spangled sheen,
As glows the moon above thy radiance pale.

'When to th' accustom'd fair my footsteps stray,
Now timely shine, for lo, the changeful moon
Drives her dim chariot in the blaze of day,
And envious sets 'ere half the night be done.

'No plunder tempts me through the treach'rous shade,
For me no nightly traveller shall mourn;
'Tis Love that calls thee, be his voice obey'd;
Sweet is her love, and claims a sweet return.'

We do not recollect any version of this poem so well calculated to convey the tenderness, delicacy, and simplicity of the original, to the English reader. We possess, however, an English poem equal in all respects to that of Moschus; the Ode to the Moon, written in July, by Lady M. W. Montague: which beautiful composition was republished by the late Dr. Warton, in the notes to his edition of Pope; and which had been long circulated in the collection of Lady M. Montague's poems, without attaining any degree of celebrity.

We need scarcely add that we recommend Mr. Morritt's elegant volume to our classical and poetical readers. It is handsomely printed, and is decorated with three appropriate engravings.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1802.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 17. *The Field of Mars:* Being an Alphabetical Digestion of the principal Naval and Military Engagements in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, particularly of Great Britain and her Allies, from the Ninth Century to the Peace of 1801. Consisting of Actions, Attacks, &c. &c. Selected from the best Historians and Journalists, and adjusted from the greatest Authority. Interspersed with concise Descriptions of Towns and Places, the Subject of each Article. Embellished with upwards of 70 Portraits, Maps, Charts, Plans, Views of Battles and Sea Fights. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

The contents of these volumes answer to the description given in the title-page, and they appear to be compiled from the best authenticated accounts. Those readers who agree with the song, in thinking "O, what a charming thing's a battle!" will here find much to delight them; and if Britons, they will receive additional gratification from finding that the brightest honors in this field were gained by their countrymen.—We cannot speak highly, however, of the *appearance* of this work; the plates, in particular, seem chiefly to have been borrowed from old publications, and are truly despicable,—with the exception of two or three new portraits.

Art. 18. *The British Military Library*; or Journal: Comprehending a complete Body of Military Knowlege; and consisting of Original Communications; with Selections from the most approved and respectable Foreign Military Publications. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

If in these volumes we have found numerous mistakes, confusion of dates, errors of the press, and other marks of haste, we have at the same time been gratified with many entertaining and instructive papers; and we must do the editors the justice to declare that, notwithstanding the hurry which we have remarked, they seem to possess abilities, and to have taken considerable pains to deserve the patronage of military men.

The biographical part has the merit of being uncommonly impartial, even with respect to living characters of the highest power; since, in the just eulogium on the Duke of York, who, as a Commader in Chief at home, certainly deserves every panegyric, his Royal Highness's defects as a General on service are not concealed; nor are the abuses in the Ordnance under Marquis Townsend, the relaxation after victory in Sir William Howe, the peculiarities of the much respected Lord Moira, &c. &c. suppressed in the liberal praises of those officers. The memoirs of Sir William Howe, and the conclusion of those of Lord Moira, are well drawn; as also the pretensions to priority of merit among the five different services, Horse, Foot, Engineers, Artillery, and Light Troops.

On the other hand, in the copious military dictionary given in the course of this work, we observe many articles copied from old books, without attending to the alterations since produced; and in the history of different regiments, the same incidents in the English military annals are several times repeated. This, indeed, the editors seem to think, was unavoidable.

The remainder of these volumes, being chiefly extracts from other works, requires no particular remark.—A number of maps, and coloured plates of the Uniforms of different Regiments, &c. illustrate this publication.

POETRY, *&c.*

Art. 19. *Juvenilia*; or a Collection of Poems. By J. H. L. Hunt, late of the Grammar School of Christ's Hospital. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

We are happy in seeing a respectable list of subscribers prefixed to these poems; which, it appears, were written between the early years of 12 and 16. In general, it is adviseable that these early blossoms of genius should be kept from criticism so severe as that of the public: but in this instance we make a willing exception, and may advise Mr. Hunt to cultivate his propitious muse both early an late. We give the following portion of an anthem as a sligh specimen:

Y

'Ye Choirs of Harmony on high,
Who tune the spheres that charm the sky,
For ever rolling round th' eternal throne;
Quick with your magic sounds unfold
Yon portals of celestial gold;
A Sister Minstrel comes to claim her own;
Haste, bring the vest of shining white,
The glitt'ring harp, and crown of light,
And pour a flood of radiance on her way!
She comes, she comes! Upon her brow
Life beams immortal triumph now;
Her eyelids open on eternal day!'

Art. 20. *Nautical Odes*, or Poetical Sketches, designed to commemorate the Achievements of the British Navy. 4to. pp. 160. 12s. Boards. Williams. 1801.

To commemorate the atchievements of our naval commanders, whether in prose or in verse, is a design which must merit praise; and the attempt which has been dictated by zealous regard for that bulwark of our prosperity, the Navy, cannot be an object of severe criticism.—By thus praising the subject of this work, we do not mean to decry the poetry; since, if it cannot be highly extolled, the reader will meet with lines much above mediocrity.

In this Naval Garland, are woven many of the gallant actions in which the late war has been so fruitful; and the poet has not wholly overlooked the merits of preceding times. His first poem is an ode to the memory of Lord Hawke, and the two next describe the most brilliant actions of Lord Rodney. The author's style is sometimes lofty, sometimes jocular, and occasionally he indulges a talent for punning. On the circumstance of *Les Droits d'Homme*, a French ship of war, being driven on the rocks by the *Indefatigable* and the *Amazon*, English frigates, a French citizen is made to say;

'And when your *Amazon* began
Her comments on the *Rights of Man*,
We bravely bore the shock,
That of MAN'S RIGHT it might be said,
With *Indefatigable* aid
She fix'd it on a rock.'

The following comparison between the merits of a great Poet and those of a great Admiral may entertain our readers by its novelty, and will serve as an additional specimen of the author's poetical abilities:

'Nor need Fame hesitate so long,
To which to give most lasting praise,
To those who heal their country's wrong,
Or to those Bards whose lofty strains
Relate the hardships, toil, and pains,
That shorten oft the hero's days.
DUNCAN's worth surpasses far,
In bold prompt deeds, and skill in fight,

And all the stratagems of war,
In judgement timely to decide,
The 'vantage of the wind and tide,
And fortitude at Danger's sight,
The scarce-own'd honour Poets merit,
For fanning the fire they inherit,
What muse-struck bardling now can write,
As well as DUNCAN's known to fight?
Hundred such bards as these degen'rate days
Avow, to him must yield superior praise,
And Dryden for his fame had freely giv'n the bays.'

Art. 21. *Ad Elizabetham Reginam, quæ Scholam Grammaticam Gainsburgensem fundavit, Carmen Alcaicum.* 4to. 6d. Printed at Gainsborough.

The grammar-school at Gainsborough, originally founded by Queen Elizabeth, had been discontinued for more than 50 years, in consequence of its having no fund for its support; when about six years ago it was revived, a subscription was formed for enlarging the school, and a clergyman embraced it as his preferment though it was *unendowed.* Should his talents and conduct be equal to such a situation, we have no doubt of his meeting with an ample reward, though it may not spring from a royal endowment; and if the qualifications of the master may be estimated by the acquirements of the scholars, this juvenile production must be no feeble recommendation of the Gainsborough school. The Alcaic Ode, as being the production of Henry Smith, a lad only 15 years old, is a remarkable indication of talents and learning.—We are not told who is the author of the Epilogue, delivered after the public speeches of the school by Henry William Hutton; we therefore take it for granted that it was prepared by the master for the occasion; and it may be considered as a farther proof of his ability to preside over the studies of ingenuous youth.

Art. 22. *The Pleader's Guide,* a Didactic Poem, in Two Books; containing the Conduct of a Suit at Law, with the Arguments of Counsellor Bother'um, and Counsellor Bore'um, in an Action between John-a-Gull and John-a-Gudgeon for Assault and Battery at a late contested Election. Book II. 8vo. pp. 100. 4s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

Of the first part of this truly humourous poem, we gave an account in our 21st vol. N. S. p. 227; and on the present occasion we are happy in being able to repeat the praise which we then bestowed. The same pleasantry and satire, with the same felicity of versification, are again observable, and intitle the author to a high station among writers of the *Burlesque.* We shall present to our readers the seventh Lecture, in which Mr. Counsellor Bother'um opens the case against John-a-Gull for an assault on the person of the Plaintiff John-a-Gudgeon:

'I rise with pleasure, I assure ye,
With transport to accost a Jury,

Of your known conscientious feeling,
Candor, and honorable dealing,
From * Middlesex discreetly chosen,
A worthy and an upright dozen. (aside.)
This action, Gentlemen, is brought
By John-a-Gudgeon for a *tort,*
The Pleadings state, " *that* John-a-Gull
With envy, wrath, and malice full,
With swords, knives, sticks, staves, fist and bludgeon,
Beat, bruis'd, and wounded John-a-Gudgeon,
First count's " for that" *with divers jugs,*
To wit, twelve pots, twelve cups, twelve mugs,
Of certain vulgar drink called toddy,
Said Gull *did sluice said* Gudgeon's *body ;*
The second count's, *for* other *toddy,*
Cast, flung, or hurl'd on Gudgeon's *body ;*
To wit, his gold-lac'd hat and hair on,
And clothes which he had then and there on ;
To wit, twelve jackets, twelve surtouts,
Twelve pantaloons, twelve pair of boots,
Which did thereby much discompose
Said Gudgeon's *mouth, eyes, ears, and nose,*
Back, belly, neck, thighs, feet, and toes,
By which, and other wrongs unheard of,
His clothes were spoil'd, and life despair'd of."
To all these counts the plea I find,
Is *son assault,* and *Issue*'s join'd—
Such, Gentlemen, is word for word
The story told on this Record.—
This fray was at a Feast or Revel,
At *Toadland,* on the Bedford Level,
Giv'n, as was usual at Elections,
By Gudgeon to his Fen-Connections ;
They'd had a meeting at the *Swan*
The day before the Poll began,
And thence adjourn'd it to make merry
With Mr. Coot who keeps the Ferry.
Now Gull, who always thrusts his nose,
Wherever John a-Gudgeon goes,
To this same feast without suspicion,
Unask'd, it seems, had gain'd admission ;
Coot had just finish'd an Oration,
And Gudgeon, with much approbation,
Was singing an Election Ballad,
Penn'd by th' ingenious Dr. Mallard,
(That Orthodox and learned writer,
Who bids so fairly for a mitre ;)

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* "*Middlesex*"—This being an Election affray, the *Venue* is supposed to have been changed upon the usual *Affidavit,* for the sake of more fair and impartial Trial before a *Middlesex Jury.*'

When GULL, who heard this song or sonnet,
With Mr. GUDGEON's Comments on it,
This GULL (whose very name denoted
The character for whom he voted)
Flourish'd his knuckles in derision,
And with much promptness of decision,
Began to pummel and belabour
The short ribs of his peaceful neighbour,
But first with tweaks assail'd his nose,
And intersper'd said tweaks with blows;
GUDGEON *explain'd*, and GULL recourse had
To other tweak like tweak aforesaid—
G—d knows, a milder gentler creature,
Never was seen in human nature,
Than the forbearing and well-judging,
Discreet, and gentle JOHN-A-GUDGEON;
And, Gentlemen, there's no man's face is
Better received at all your races,
Wells, mouths, and water drinking places;
Was Alderman, and Mayor elect;
Once had the honor to be prick'd
For Sheriff, which important station
He gain'd without solicitation,—
No doubt his Lordship recognizes
The coat he had on at Assizes,
A velveret, genteel and neat,
With tabby lin'd, and frogs complete,
Made for Squire GUDGEON's wedding ball,
When first he came to *Webfoot* Hall,
An ancient seat in th' Isle of Ely,
Where all the GUDGEONS live genteely,—
Which coat so trimm'd, so frog'd, said GULL
Did spoil, besmear, and disannul,
With the most villainous libations
Of the most vile of vile Potations;
For proof, we'll call GULL's worthy friend,
Who keeps a School at Toadland's End,
One SIMON TROUT, a pious Pastor,
And Dr. TENCH, who spread the Plaster,
And Farmer CHUBB, an honest Yeoman,
Who speaks the truth and cares for no man,
But above all, to prove our case.
We'll show you Mr. GUDGEON's face,
Where ev'ry injur'd feature pleads
'Gainst JOHN-A-GULL's atrocious deeds;
What facts, what species of excuse,
My Brother BORE'UM will produce,
What case he'll make, and how maintain
His Plea of *son Assault demesne*,
Wise as he looks, you may relie on't,
He knows no more than his own Client;

'Tis for you, Gentlemen, to say
What damage JOHN-A-GULL shall pay;
'Tis in your wisdom, Gentlemen, to pull
So wide the purse-strings of this factious GULL,
That he no more may triumph and parade
The streets of Cambridge in a blue Cockade,
Singing the praises of a British Jury,
From the *Pig-market* to the *Petty-Cury*;
But back to *Toadland* as he bends his way,
Whoe'er beholds him * to his friend may say,
Mark, how the Jury have rever'd the Laws,
Giv'n the just Judgment in the GUDGEON Cause,
Taught the proud GULL to sing an humbler strain,
And sent him waddling to his bogs again.'

The examination and cross-examination of the witnesses display considerable merit; and Mr. Counsellor Bore'um's defence is not inferior in pleasantry to the opening of his brother Barrister.

We are informed that this poem is the production of Mr. A. Anstey, son of the celebrated author of the Bath Guide; and we are little inclined to apply to this Gentleman the line of Virgil,

—" *Sequiturque patrem* non *passibus equis.*"

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 23. *Plants of the Coast of Coromandel.* By W. Roxburgh, M. D. Vol. II. Fasciculus III. Folio. 3l. 10s. coloured; 1l. 1s. plain. Boards. Nicol.

The reader will find an account of the second Number of this volume in our 34th Vol. N. S. p. 310. In the present, the following plants are delineated:

Curcuma Montana.
Justicia Repens.
——— *Pectinata.*
Gratiola Veronicifolia.
——— *Oppositofolia.*
Rottboellia Compressa.
——— *Exaltata.*
Opilia Amentacea.
Erycibe Paniculata.
Triopteris Indica.
Torenia Cordifolia.
Gmelina Parvifolia.
Stemodia Viscosa.
Serpicula Verticillata.
Vallisneria Octandra.
Stilago Diandra.
Antidesma Pubescens.
Rottlera Tinctoria.
Cluytia Collina.
——— *Patula.*
——— *Montana.*
——— *Spinosa.*
——— *Scandens.*
Mimosa Cinerea.
——— *Catechu.*

The *Rottlera Tinctoria* is a native of the inland mountainous parts of the Circars; and Dr. R. says that he has never found it any where else. The red powder, which covers the capsules, is a noted dying drug, especially among the Moors, and constitutes a considerable branch of commerce from the Circars; chiefly with the mer-

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' * Ὧδε δέ τις εἴπεσκεν ἰδὼν ἐς πλησίον ἄλλον.'

chants trading to Hydrabad, and other interior parts of the Peninsula. When the capsules are ripe, they are gathered, and the red powder is carefully brushed off, and collected for sale; no preparation being necessary to preserve it. This powder dyes silk a deep, bright, durable, orange or flame colour of very great beauty. Alkaline salts enable water to extract from it a very deep blood red; and the addition of alum renders the colour brighter and more permanent.

The bark of the *Cluytia Spinosa* is a strong astringent; and its leaves, which are greedily eaten by cattle, are said to destroy worms in their bowels.

Of the *Mimosa Catechu*, Dr. R. says that the wood is good, and applied to various uses: but the natives have no idea of obtaining from it, or any other, the extract called *Catechu* (*Terra Japonica*). 'Yet I believe (he adds) there are many trees of this genus, just as fit to yield the extract as the *Mimosa Catechu*.'

We occasionally select these notices from this magnificent and expensive publication, with the idea that they may possibly lead to advantageous importations from the East, and to beneficial acquirements in the elegant arts and the useful sciences.

Art. 24. *Prodromus Lepidopterorum Britannicorum.* A concise Catalogue of British Lepidopterous Insects, with the Times and Places of Appearance in the winged State. By a Fellow of the Linnæan Society. 4to. 4s. Hurst. 1802.

Nearly 800 species of lepidopterous or scaly-winged insects are marked in the first column of this catalogue, the periods of their appearance in the winged state in the second, and their respective habitations in the third. The addition of the specific to the generic characters would have formed an useful pocket volume, to those who are interested in the prosecution of this branch of entomology: but the present list, we are told in the preface, is only the harbinger of a more extensive and important work, already in a state of considerable preparation, and designed to exhibit, in a complete series, the history of the British lepidoptera.

With the view of promoting his favorite design, the author has established an *Aurelian Society*, furnished with a cabinet which already contains 1100 species, and more than 300 varieties belonging to this division. We subjoin the terms of admission, and beg leave to add our most cordial wishes that the exertions of the founder and members may be attended with abundant success:

'Every person, wishing to become a member of this society, must possess a collection of British Lepidoptera; from which he must give up to the Aurelian Cabinet, at least one specimen of every species in his collection, which that does not possess. This sacrifice, considering the very advanced state of the Cabinet (the only one which *now* contains or *ever* did contain *all* the known *British* species of the beautiful Genus Papilio), can seldom be great, and must evidently become less and less; for it he shall immediately receive from the possessor, the fullest value of such articles, either in rare insects or money, if he chooses to accept it; he shall also afterwards receive occasional duplicates of scarce insects, which will continue to be collected, both by purchase and personal industry, to answer the claims of such Aurelians, as may hereafter wish to have their names enrolled in the annals of the society. By these means the Aurelian Cabinet will evidently advance towards the standard of perfection; and the collection of every member of the society will likewise become increased both in number and value.

'All members will have a right of examining the cabinet as often as they please, either for the purposes of pleasure or instruction.'

FINE ARTS.

Art. 25. *Picturesque Excursions in Devonshire and Cornwall,* No. 2, or *A Tour to the North of Devon,* including Barnstaple, Tavistock, Lynton, Lynmouth, and the Valley of Stones. By T. H Williams, of Plymouth. Royal 8vo. pp. 36. 7s. Murray and Highley. 1802.

The first Number of this work was mentioned with praise in our 37th Vol. N. S. We now observe that Mr. Williams has lost the assistance of his associate Mr. Johns, and that Mr. Anker Smith no longer continues to furnish the engravings: which latter circumstance, at least, we consider as unfortunate for the undertaking. This Number contains ten etchings by the editor, which, though neatly executed, are not calculated to give a distinct and accurate view of the objects represented; while the descriptions of the places are declamatory and turgid, instead of possessing precision, or being characteristic and appropriate.—The following anecdote which occurs in speaking of the Torrs on the Devonshire coast is amusing:

'The prospect on the left began to expand, and the well-known Brent Torr rose with dignity to the view. This Torr, though twenty miles from Plymouth, is the first Devonshire land-mark seen by mariners from the British Channel; and the church on its summit, according to tradition, owes its origin to the following occurrence. A merchant, in one of our colonies, wishing to return with his wealth to his native country, embarked full of those hopes which men in whose bosoms the *amor patriæ* is not extinguished, so fondly indulge. The vessel, wafted by light breezes, pursued her course for some days without interruption; but on an evening symptoms of a change appeared, and by break of day the ship became in great danger. The tempest, in short, increased to such a degree as to excite the most alarming apprehensions of instant destruction. The agonized merchant, in the fervency of prayer, vowed that should Providence spare him from the storm, he would raise a church on the first land he saw. The vessel fortunately rode out the tempest, and this Torr presenting itself first, on their approach to the western coast of the island, he piously performed his vow, by building the church on its summit, to remain as a memorial of his gratitude and sincerity!'

This work is handsomely printed by Bensley, and a continuation is promised.

Art. 26. *The Young Painter's Maulstick;* being a practical Treatise on Perspective; containing Rules and Principles for Delineation on Planes, treated so as to render the Art of Drawing correctly easy of Attainment even to common Capacities; and entertaining at the same Time from its Truth and Facility. Founded on the clear mechanical Process of Vignola and Sirigatti; united with the Theoretic Principles of the celebrated Dr. Brook Taylor. Addressed to Students in Drawing. By James Malton, Architect and Draftsman. 4to. pp. 80. 1l. 1s. Boards. Griffiths, and Carpenter.

In this volume, many sensible rules and judicious observations will be found, from which not only the student but the advanced scholar in the art of painting may derive considerable assistance.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 27. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Honourable Sir William Scott*, delivered in the House of Commons, April 7, 1802, upon a Motion for Leave to bring in a Bill, relative to the Non-residence of the Clergy, and other Affairs of the Church. 8vo. 2s. Cobbett and Morgan.

Whatever may be the new regulations adopted by the Legislature respecting the residence of the clergy, thanks are due to Sir William Scott for this luminous discussion of the subject. He pleads the cause of the clergy with much ability, and gives no flattering view of the state of their revenues. The late prosecutions under the act of Henry VIII. he considers as a sort of *privateering* against the church; and the statute itself as 'rather a statute of vengeance than of reformation,' and by no means adapted to the condition of the clergy since the Reformation. That, however, observes Sir William, which above all creates a necessity for new-moulding the statute, is the extreme d pauperated state of many of the churches of this kingdom. To establish this position, a melancholy picture is given of the general provision for the clergy; and the magnitude of the lay impropriations created at the time of the suppression by Henry VIII. is lamented. 'Of the eleven thousand seven hundred and odd livings existing in the kingdom, above one moiety of the whole are under 50l. a year, and upon an average less than 23l. a year.'* Some, it is confessed, are large: but Sir W. strenuously opposes the equalizing system.

While he undertakes the cause of the inferior clergy, Sir W. Scott does not forget to apologize for the bishops, who have been supposed to be blameworthy for not taking notice of certain scandalous instances of non-residence. Here, says he, 'I must let out a secret to the House, a little dangerous perhaps to be communicated at large, that, in truth there is hardly one act of discipline, which a bishop can execute upon his clergy, (if it be at all resisted) but at the expence and the vexation and hazard of a law suit.' As the hands of the bishops are now tied, Sir William proposes to increase their authority respecting discipline; and to give them power to grant licences of absence to the clergy in certain cases. With respect to the clergy themselves, he proposes an act of amnesty for past neglect, to allow them a liberty to farm where injuriously prohibited by the antient statute, and, on the matter of residence, to give a fair and reasonable allowance of time to the clergy for the occasions of private life, and to allow an *ipso facto* exemption from all penalties for bearing certain offices, during the time required for the duties of those offices.

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* Is this an accurate statement?

The objections to this bill are obvious: but the remarks with which it is prefaced demand consideration; and the united interests of our civil and ecclesiastical constitutions prohibit the adoption of hasty measures.

LAW.

Art. 28 *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber, and in the House of Lords*, from Michaelmas Term 40 George III. 1799, to Michaelmas Term 42 George III. 1801, both inclusive. With Tables of the Cases and Principal Matters. By John Bernard Bosanquet of Lincoln's Inn, Esq., Barrister at Law, and Christopher Puller of the Middle Temple, Esq., Barrister at Law. Vol. II. Folio. pp. 650. 2l. 3s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

We gave an account of the first volume of this useful publication, in our 33d Vol N. S. and the same praise which we then bestowed on it continues to be merited by the editors. In the report of the case *Bishop* against *Young*, however, C. P. H. 40 Geo. III. which determines that *Debt* lies by the payee against the maker of a promissory note, expressed to be for value received: we apprehend that there exists some little inaccuracy. —Lord Eldon, in delivering his judgment, (which is very elaborate,) is reported to have said; " So also in *Hodges* v. *Steward*, *Skinn*. 346. it is allowed by the Court that debt will lie against the drawer of a bill of exchange for value received; and the reason given is, ' but this is for the apparent consideration."—The following are the words in Skinner's Report of the Case of *Hodges* against *Steward*: " And in this case it was oftentimes said, that an *Indebitatus assumpsit* does not lie upon a bill of exchange, as it has been ruled in divers cases, but against a drawer for value received there it would lie; but this is for the apparent consideration." In *Hodges* against *Steward*, the action was *Assumpsit*, and not a word is said of the action of *Debt* being maintainable.

Many important cases are contained in this volume, and among them that of *Beard* against *Webb*, which came before the Court of Exchequer Chamber on a writ of error: when it was decided that "a *feme-coverte*, sole trader in the City of *London*, is not liable to be sued as such in the Courts at *Westminster*: and that even in the City Courts the husband should be joined for conformity."—To this judgment we alluded in our account of the viiith Volume of Term Reports *, with that commendation to which it is intitled, as well on account of its ability as of the large store of legal erudition which it displayed.

The first Number of the third Volume has just made its appearance, and contains the Cases which were decided in last Hilary Term. The performance possesses so much merit with respect to accuracy and fidelity, that we sincerely hope for the sake of the public that it be continued by the present editors, who have shewn themselve thoroughly qualified for the undertaking.

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* M. R. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 20.

Art. 29. *An Abridgement of Cases argued and determined in the C of Law,* during the Reign of His present Majesty King George Third. With Tables of the Names of Cases and Principal Mat By Thomas Walter Williams, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Lon Barrister at Law; author of the Whole Law relative to the D and Office of a Justice of the Peace. 8vo. Vols. II. III. and 16s. each Volume, Boards. Robinsons.

This work was mentioned on its first appearance in our xx Volume, N. S. and we then made a remark which we are now no means induced to retract, that the publication seemed altoge unnecessary. We view the useless multiplication of law-books serious regret and disapprobation, and we would always exert selves to prevent a continuance of the evil.--The second Volum this work begins with the title *Bankrupt,* and ends with that of *toms and Excise:* the third begins with *Demurrer,* and ends with *tices of the Peace;* the fourth begins with *Landlord and Tenant,* concludes with *Power.* A fifth volume, we understand, is in a of forwardness.

Art. 30. *Continuation of the Statutes and Orders of the House of C mons relative to Elections,* and Abstract of the Determination Select Committees from 1796 to the present Time. By Rich Troward, of Pall Mall. 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. Butterworth. 1802

The continuation of a work which we noticed in our third Volu N. S. in terms of praise;—the title-page sufficiently explains nature of its contents.

Art. 31. *A digested Index of the Chancery Reports:* containing Points of Equity determined in the High Court of Chancery, fr the Year 1689 to the Year 1801. To which is added a Table the Names of the Cases. Royal 8vo. 16s. Boards. Butterwor 1802.

The utility of this compilation, executed as it is, to all those w are concerned in the study and practice of our equitable system jurisprudence, is sufficiently apparent. In their researches, instead toiling through a variety of indices framed on different, and many them on very erroneous principles, they may now have recourse one well digested Index comprized in a single volume, and arrang with great regularity and judgment. The editor has not thoug fit to give us his name: but, whoever he may be, he has no rea for being ashamed of such useful labours. His Advertisement sta that the work includes 'the principal Chancery Reports from the y 1689 to the year 1801: that it comprehends twenty volumes; nam Precedents in Chancery, P. Williams, Cases *temp.* Talbot, Atky Vesey senior, Ambler, Brown, and Vesey junior, to the fifth volu inclusive. That, where the abstract relates to *points adjudged* in t cause, the name and date of the case as well as the reporter and pa have been given. Where the *dicta* have been judged of sufficient i portance to be inserted, the reporter and the page have merely be

mention

mentioned, but without adding the name of the case. That the cases are placed chronologically, so that the progress of the various doctrines which have been established by the successive labours of the great men who have presided in Equity, is distinctly marked. That the few law cases interspersed in the volume are added at the conclusion of the Equity cases; and that a table is given of the names of all the cases with references to the heads under which they are respectively classed in this digest, and also to the reporter and page where the case is to be found.'

Such being the contents of this volume, little doubt can be entertained that it is calculated to facilitate the researches of professional men; and we hear with pleasure that a similar Index to the Law Reporters is in preparation.

Art. 32. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of Exchequer*, from Michaelmas Term to Trinity Term 41 George III. inclusive. By Robert Forrest, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. I. Part I. Royal 8vo. pp. 180. 5s. Clarke and Sons. 1802.

As this work is to be continued, and as the present number does not complete the volume, we shall postpone our examination of its merits: satisfying ourselves, at present, with remarking that we observe with pleasure that the proceedings of this Court, which has so extensive a jurisdiction, now occupy the attention of a professional Gentleman; because its judgments have certainly an equal claim with those of other Courts to be regularly reported.

Art. 33. *A Treatise on the Law of Bankruptcy in Scotland.* By George Joseph Bell, Esq. Advocate. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. Volume the 1st. pp. 660. 19s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

Few legal subjects involve questions of greater difficulty, in the decision of which a large portion of the community are interested, than the Law of Bankruptcy. In a commercial country, it is of particular importance to have it ascertained in what proportion the effects of an insolvent debtor are to be divided among his creditors, what steps are to be taken to effectuate a distribution, what encouragements to future industry should be held out to the unsuccessful but honest individual, and to what description of persons these encouragements should be confined. All these, and many more, are essential points to be fixed before trade can flourish; and we heard with surprize that the present publication is the first that has appeared in Scotland, in which these particulars have been distinctly considered.

The Introduction gives a view of the general principles of the Bankrupt Law, which naturally suggests an outline of the common law of execution for debt in both countries, with a contrast of the two codes of Bankrupt Law. The volume is divided into four books; in the first of which Bankruptcy in general is considered, with the persons who are subject to its regulations. In the second, those Laws which are directed against fraudulent Obligations and Conveyances are discussed. In the third, the Laws, by which Judicial Preferences are equalized in relation to Bankruptcy, are introduced and examined.

The fourth Book is divided into three Parts: the first treats of the Processes by which the Property of a Bankrupt is converted into Money, and distributed among the Creditors, independently of Sequestration and voluntary Trust; the second Part considers the Sequestration, or Process of Distribution of the Estates of those engaged in Trade or Manufactures; and the third Part discusses the Distribution of the Estate of a Bankrupt by voluntary Trust and Accession, or what in our law would be called the assignment of an insolvent's effects for the benefit of his creditors; which mode is usually adopted when the property is inconsiderable, for the purpose of avoiding the expence that attends suing out a commission of bankruptcy.

From this view of the contents, our readers will immediately discern that much useful matter is introduced into the volume; and we must add, from what we have seen, that the author has discharged his duty in an able and satisfactory manner.

EDUCATION.

Art. 34. *Classical Biography:* exhibiting alphabetically the proper Names, with a short Account of the several Deities, Heroes, and other Persons, mentioned in the ancient classic Authors; and a more particular Description of the most distinguished Characters among the Romans; the Whole being interspersed with occasional Explanations of Words and Phrases: designed chiefly to contribute to the Illustration of the Latin Classics. By Alexander Adam, LL. D. Rector of the High School, of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 414. 6s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

Respectable monuments of the learning and industry of Dr. Adam are already before the public; and the present compilation will not detract from the fame which they have so justly procured for him. It is on a smaller scale than some other works of a similar kind, and therefore more within the general reach. All the articles, which we have examined, we have found to be accurate and satisfactory:—but we do not precisely enter into the reasons which induced the author to enlarge more on Roman than on Greek topics.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 35. *Figures of Mosaic Pavements discovered at Horkstow, in Lincolnshire.* Imperial Folio. 3l. 3s. Boards. White. 1801.

In an advertisement prefixed to this work, we are informed by the author, Mr. Samuel Lysons, that

'The Plates of Mosaic Pavements discovered at Horkstow, here offered to the Public, are the beginning of a Work in which it is proposed to exhibit figures of the most remarkable Roman Antiquities discovered in Great Britain under the title of *RELIQUIÆ ROMANÆ*, to be published in separate parts, four of which will make a volume. With the fourth part will be given a general title-page and table of contents.—The second part, which is in a state of great forwardness, will consist of fourteen Plates, representing the Remains of Temples, Inscriptions, and other Roman Antiquities, discovered at Bath.—The third part will contain ten Plates, representing several Mosaic Pavements, discovered near Frampton in Dorsetshire, coloured after the originals. Of a work of this kind, it is impossible to ascertain the extent, as that must in a great measure depend on future discoveries

'The antiquities which have not hitherto been engraved will be given first; but it is also intended to introduce the most curious of those which have been published before.'

We add our wishes that the work should be extended to include all the curious remains of Roman Antiquity in Great Britain: because whatever is published in detached parcels, making but an accidental appearance, and blended with other matter, would be much more satisfactory if brought together in one collection; and Mr. Lysons's known talents and perseverance in these researches make the completion of such an undertaking, by him, a desirable object with the public.

The part here presented consists of a view and map of the country in the neighbourhood of the discoveries; four plates of the Mosaic pavements; and one from a drawing by Mr. Smirke of the principal floor restored, that does him much credit. Nevertheless, the comparison of the latter with the former, though executed by so able a master, evinces the difficulty of imitating the spirit of these antient works.—The specimens of the remains have every appearance of being faithfully coloured after the originals, and are elegant examples of the author's labours.

Art. 36. *The Detector of Quackery; or* Analyser of Medical, Philosophical, Political, Dramatic, and Literary Imposture. Comprehending a Sketch of the Manners of the Age. By John Corry, Author of a Satirical View of London, at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century, &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Crosby. 1802.

Wearied with politics and theological controversies, we should joyfully hail the return of something like old English humour and honest satire. That there is ground enough in this huge town for the detector of quackery to exercise his art, nobody will venture to deny; and there can be no fear of any dearth of game: only let him beware that he does not, like the London sportsmen, with whom, hit or miss, luck is all, pour his random shot on unlawful game,—among the cocks and hens, the ducks, geese, turkeys, and pigs of the farmyard. Though Mr. Corry is a good marksman in general, this caution may be of great service to him; since he is apt sometimes to be too careless in taking aim.—To be serious: there are some names in this little book which we should never have expected to see in such company, unless it were by way of contrast to the rest; which here is not the case. Raillery has its bounds, and the shafts of ridicule require great dexterity in the management of them. When those bounds are transgressed, raillery itself becomes ridiculous; and ridicule, when misapplied, recoils on its wanton employer. This observation may be trite, but that circumstance will only prove that the truth of it is universally acknowleged.

Among other instances, to which we merely allude, we cann conceive why Dr. F. should be so unhandsomely treated on accou of his illustrations of Sterne. The Doctor in that performance h certainly made out his point, whatever be the consequences in r gard to the merit of the lively and pleasing writer whose works a the subject of it.

On the whole, however, the Detector of Quackery has me of intention as well as of execution; and when he tries his hand agai we doubt not that he will profit by our hints; taking them, they are intended, in good part.—Whatever be his reason, he h not aimed at any characters in law and theology. Is it becau there are no quacks in those professions?

Art. 37. *Life and Campaigns of General Suworow, Conqueror Italy.* By an Officer. 12mo. pp. 146. 2s. sewed. Hur 1801.

A neat and concise account of the military exploits of this renown warrior: but, like most others on similar subjects, it is in many plac intelligible, and almost throughout interesting, only to professio men. The concluding part relates facts of so striking a nature, a sketches so justly the character of the hero, that we should ha begged leave to substitute it for the observations which a perusal the work had suggested to us, had not the passages been too lon and had not the public attention been for some time withdrawn fro this "monster of ferocity," as he has been too justly called.

Art. 38. *An Oration pronounced at Charleston, at the Request of Artillery Company,* on the Seventeenth of June; being the Anniv sary of the Battle of Bunker's Hill, and of that Company. B William Austin, A. B. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed at Charlesto near Boston, in New England; sold in London by Ridgway.

Eloquence is never so much in its element as in free states, a never more naturally employed than in vindicating and doing hono to the cause of freedom. In all ages, events propitious to liber have been commemorated; and on these occasions, orators and poe have been fired with a sort of divine enthusiasm. The song of Ca listratus, beginning Εν μυρτȣ κλαδι το ξιφος; φορήσω, does not less expre the veneration and gratitude with which the Athenians honour the memory of Harmodius and Aristogiton, than this oration of M Austin displays the sacred esteem which his countrymen offer the manes of those who fell in the first conflict for American ind pendence, on Bunker's hill. We must do Mr. A. the justice to ow that his oratory possesses all the noble and impressive characters freedom, and we doubt not that it was heard by Americans wi heartfelt pleasure; although we, on this side of the Atlantic, cann contemplate the event here recorded with unmixed satisfaction.

Various exuberances and repetitions occur in this composition: b we understand that it is the production of a young writer, wh time and improved taste will doubtless lead in future to avoid th and similar faults.

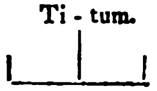
Art. 39. *The Elements of English Metre*, both in Prose and Verse, illustrated under a Variety of Examples, by the analogous Proportions of annexed Lines, and by other occasional Marks. By Richard Roe. 4to. 5s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This is an ingenious attempt to mark the divisions of our Metre, on a new plan. The author, considering the succession of parts as portions of extension and duration, measures them by the division of straight lines:

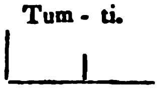
'Agreeably to this, (he says) I shall have frequent recourse to my rule and compasses. With that I shall draw a straight line under each example, and with these shall divide it into spaces analogous to the parts intended to be measured; and so, on every occasion, shall frame a rule, or scale, for the reader's use; observing, as is usual on such instruments, to mark the larger divisions by taller strokes, and the less, or subdivisions, by lower ones.'

It will sufficiently explain the author's plan, if we extract his illustrations of the different feet:

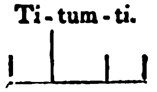
An *Iambic.*



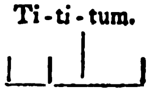
A *Trochee.*



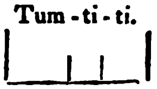
An *Amphibrach.*



An *Anapest.*



A *Dactyl.*



These principles are applied, in a variety of remarks, to the feet, lines, and clauses, which constitute the essential parts of Metre. Through this discussion we cannot propose to follow the writer: but we recommend the perusal of his book to every candidate for poetical honours, who wishes to thoroughly understand the mechanism of verse.

We shall quote, as a specimen of the author's general mode of reasoning, his account of the distinction between verse and prose; a question not settled by any preceding writer. It appears, he says,

'1st. That accelerated and retarded syllables belong exclusively to verse; the former being in prose always attached to the preceding accent, and the latter always becoming accented syllables themselves. Hence accelerated and retarded syllables are such only in comparison with other syllables possessing similar situations in verse; and not at all, but rather the reverse, in comparison with their natural lengths in prose. Hence also the very same order of syllables may often, according to the mode of recitation, become either prose or verse; as has already appeared in the latter part of the first chapter.

'2dly. That the feet are in verse either wholly or mostly of one kind, which is either dissyllabic or trisyllabic; verse bringing the syllables to a greater degree of equality, and consequently of smoothness in the utterance.

'3dly. That the lines and larger portions are in verse either reduced all to one kind, or, if of different kinds, intermixed with more regularity.

'Perhaps this and the foregoing distinction are not, strictly speaking, essential; and yet the practical diversity, in these respects, between prose and verse is so great as to require some notice, though it is difficult to ascertain its precise limits. We have prose, which almost equals the harmony and order of verse; and we have but too much verse, which hardly deserves the name. Lowth's translation of Isaiah affords eminent examples of the measured prose here alluded to.

'Lastly, feet, lines, &c. are not in prose regarded as such, and occur in it only as necessary effects of the nature of utterance, and the constructional members of language; but in verse these several portions are wrought into such forms as are most grateful to the ear, and best calculated to enforce expression. In short, prose is more natural, and verse more artificial.'

We know not whether this discrimination will satisfy our critical readers: but it certainly points out several shades of difference which have not been previously described.

Art. 40. *A brief Sketch of the principal Features which distinguish the Character of his present Majesty George the Third.* By T. Dutton, A. M. Intended as an Accompaniment to the Print published in Commemoration of the providential Preservation of His Majesty's Life, at Drury Lane Theatre, May 15, 1800. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Riley. 1802.

There's such divinity doth hedge a king, as the poet says, that we cannot contemplate his character without reverence; and when the duty of loyalty is enforced by the actual virtues of the Sovereign, the biographer feels language insufficient to do justice to his subject, and to express the warm emotions of his heart. Mr Dutton stands in this predicament. Animated by gratitude for his Majesty's providential escape, and recollecting that he is addressing himself to a loyal people, he labours his theme to the utmost energy of expression of which he is capable. In the present instance, then, we are not to exercise the duties of our critical station: but, congratulating Mr. D. on his list of subscribers, we unite with him in admiring the royal virtues, and in his ardent prayer at the conclusion; 'That it may please the Guardian Power, which has so signally stood forward as his safeguard and defence, still to prove his shield in every danger, protect his life, crown his days with health and happiness, long prosper his auspicious reign, and shower down the choicest blessings on his anointed head!'

The print, to which this little volume is an accompaniment, is beautiful both in its design and execution; and the medallion of the King is stated to be an excellent likeness, on the authority of the royal family themselves. The whole is engraven by that celebrated veteran in the art, Mr. Bartolozzi, in his best manner.

Art. 41. *The General Gazetteer;* or compendious Geographical Dictionary; containing a Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, Cities, Towns, Forts, Seas, Harbours, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Capes, &c. &c. in the known World; with the Government, Customs, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants; the Extent, Boundaries, and Natural Productions of each Country; the Trade, Manufactures, and Curiosities of the Cities and Towns; their Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances in English Miles from remarkable Places; and the various Events by which they have been distinguished. Including an Account of the Counties, Cities, Boroughs, Market-Towns, and principal Villages in Great Britain and Ireland. Illustrated by Maps. Originally written by R. Brooks, M. D. The Twelfth Edition, with considerable Additions and Improvements. 8vo. 10s. 6d. bound. Johnson, &c. 1802.

The first edition of this very useful compilation appeared in the year 1762, and was noticed by us in our 26th volume; since that period, it has received very considerable accessions; and in the present impression above one thousand new articles have been introduced. We have compared this volume in several instances with preceding editions, and have it in our power to assure our readers that the alterations and improvements are numerous and material. The various events, by which different places have been distinguished, have been brought down to the end of the eighteenth century.

Art. 42. *Cambrian Itinerary, or Welsh Tourist:* Containing an Historical and Topographical Description of the Antiquities and Beauties of Wales. Wherein are minutely and separately described, according to their Geographical and modern Divisions, all the different Counties, Towns, Villages, &c. &c. Also, the principal Houses of Accommodation, or Inns in the Country. Likewise a Colloquial Vocabulary, in English and Welsh; and an Appendix containing the Bardic or antient Welsh Alphabet. The Whole illustrated by a New and Correct Map of the Principality. By Thomas Evans. 8vo. pp. 383. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hurst. 1801.

The length of Mr. Evans's title-page enables us to curtail our account of his work; which has interest enough to render it an eligible companion to every one who makes this fashionable tour. Yet its account of those parts of Wales, with which we are best acquainted, is not free from many inaccuracies; and therefore we may conclude that such places as happen not to be so well known to us have not fared better. The style, though far from correct, is sufficiently intelligible: but why will tourists swell their books to an undue size; why are they not sensible that simplicity, accuracy, and conciseness, ought to be the aim of their labours?

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 43. Preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, April 26, 18 on returning Thanks for his Majesty's recovery from a danger Sickness. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D.D. Rector of Bra ford, and Vicar of Shirley in the County of Derby. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

This preacher gives a just account of religion, or the fear of G as the true foundation of a benevolent and virtuous conduct ;—off the tribute of praise to royalty, with a professed disavowal of pa gyric and adulation ;—calls on the gratitude of the nation for t King's health, among other public favours ;—and exhorts, very su ably, to the resolute abandonment of all sin and disobedience, whi sooner or later effect distress and ruin ; as well as to the steady purs of that righteousness by which nations are exalted, and the peace a happiness of individuals will be eventually secured. The language plain, and on the whole easy and agreeable.

Art. 44. *A Discourse (addressed chiefly to Parents) on the Duty a Advantage of Inoculating Children with the Cow-Pock :* Preached the Chapel of St. Edmund, in Dudley, Feb. 14, 1802. By Lu Booker, LL. D. Minister of the said Chapel. 4to. 1s. Hatcha

Ignorant prejudice is continually at war with science, and ende vours to obstruct its utility. What clamours were raised by t vulgar against the alteration of the style, and against the introdu tion of inoculation for the small-pox ! We have met with individu in classes above the vulgar, who have expressed themselves very inte perately against inoculating with the Vaccine or Cow-pock : bu there is no reason to justify them. Medical men, furnished with th most ample proofs of its beneficial effects, are unanimous in consi dering it as the most important discovery of the 18th century, an in recommending it as a mild, safe, and effectual security against th infection of the small-pox. As, however, prejudice will exert itsel against it, we are glad to find the use of the Vaccine inculcated from the pulpit. Dr. Booker indeed apologizes for making it the subject of a sermon : but, so far from deeming an apology necessary, we consider him as intitled to general thanks. The benevolence of his Divine Master reached "as well to the body as to the soul," and Dr. B. is thence justified in extending his views beyond the line of mere ghostly admonition.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The grammatical remarks of our friend at Madeira have certainly much truth in them ; and we shall not be unmindful of his suggestions. With regard to certain *two* publications, his information arrived (in part) too late ; of the third, we are yet to give an account.

We thank *Clericus Norfolc. Vet.* for his well-intentioned hints, of which we shall make what use we can, though we do not wholly subscribe to them.

Some other letters remain for future notice, our attention to them having been unavoidably postponed.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1802.

ART. I. *Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape,* in the Years 1798 and 1799. By Joseph Acerbi. Illustrated with seventeen elegant Engravings. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Mawman. 1802.

IT is obvious that few literary productions are, on the whole, better calculated to combine instruction with entertainment than books of travels; and that the delineation of human character, however modified by external impressions, will always excite a warm interest. History exhibits to us the grand drama which has been performed on the face of the globe: but she scarcely ever unfolds the secret springs of those great events of which it is composed; and the details of ambition, war, and misery, form a picture which is sickening and monotonous. If biography were written with taste and judgment, if the materials were selected with care, and if the indiscriminate profusion of eulogy were scrupulously avoided, it might be deemed more engaging and more useful. The lively varied narrative of the accomplished traveller, however, possesses peculiar advantages. He takes a wider range; he views men in very different situations; he paints their characters, their manners, and their arts; he traces the operation of local causes, describes the nature of the climate and the quality of the soil, and portrays the influence of their political condition: all which he enlivens by judiciously interweaving the recital of his personal adventures. Distance of time and distance of place, though kindred relations, make dissimilar impressions on the mind. The former presents to us an invincible barrier, but we feel the possibility of passing the widest interval of space. It costs the imagination an effort to remount to the obscurity of remote ages; yet, with the utmost facility, we transport ourselves in idea to the extreme regions of the globe. We accompany the author in his route, we are interested in his success, and we sympathize with the dangers and difficulties which he encounters.

The work which now calls for our attention may be considered as a valuable accession to our stock of travels; since it possesses merit decidedly superior to that of the ordinary class of such compositions. Mr. Acerbi has chosen a field little inviting and rarely visited; and, though a native of Italy, he has ventured to explore the recesses of the Arctic Circle. Prompted by an ardent curiosity, he extended his journeys beyond the limits of the habitable world, and undauntingly traversed those gloomy sterile solitudes which are scarcely trodden by human feet, till his course was arrested on the shores of the Frozen Ocean:—as the motto in his title-page proclaims,

Sistimus hic tandem, nobis ubi defuit orbis.

Though Nature, however, is there divested of her most attractive charms, she takes a bolder outline, and assumes those features of savage grandeur which inspire emotions of the sublime. The general impression is also wonderfully heightened by the singular character of the climate. During the summer months, the sun never sets; the unremitting action of his rays at length collects a heat which is almost insupportable; and in vain the hapless stranger invokes the blessing of night and repose; for even then he is annoyed by all the evils that infest the more humid regions of the tropics:—while in winter, the most opposite characteristics display themselves with equal energy. In order to travel with pleasure or profit, a rare concurrence of qualifications is required; activity, zeal, address, temper, and perseverance. With all these, Mr. Acerbi appears to be gifted in an eminent degree. Eager in the pursuit of knowlege, he patiently gleans information in every quarter: not deterred either by difficulty or the prospect of danger, he continually presses forwards with indefatigable resolution: apparently possessing those manners and accomplishments which gain esteem, he always finds easy access, and experiences a kind reception in the hospitable North; and he mixes freely with the natives, enters into their views, and partakes of their sports and amusements. From the polished Swede, he passes to the simple Finlander, and thence to the rude and unfeeling inhabitant of Lapland.

A foreigner, however well acquainted with our languag cannot be supposed to write it with the purity which shou qualify it for the public eye: but Mr. Acerbi seems to ha found an able assistant. The style of the work is clear a vigorous; and if it often bears marks of haste and carelessne it rises at times to the character of elegance. Occasionally, t phraseology borders indeed on the coarse and colloquial; but is still genuine English composition, and very seldom betrays any traces of a French or Italian original.—The part which treats of Sweden was drawn up, the author informs us, for the entertainment of a small circle of his friends. It contains some particulars too bold, perhaps, for publication: but he was loth to soften and change it, and rather chose to sacrifice his private feelings to what he conceived to be the interest of truth. The portion of the volumes that relates to Finland and Lapland, which is the most copious and will probably be deemed the most interesting, he was, by motives of delicacy, long restrained from bringing forwards; because Colonel Skiöldebrand, a Swedish officer, who accompanied him in the adventurous journey to the North Cape, and who was an excellent draftsman, had announced his design of publishing at Stockholm the picturesque scenery of those countries, with descriptions of the objects represented in the engravings: but, when Mr. Acerbi observed that his friend's work appeared only in numbers, and would not be completed for several years,—and when he reflected that, under such circumstances, his own publication, so far from interfering with the other, might have some effect in promoting its circulation abroad,—his scruples were removed.

The author appears to have left his father's roof and his native land, when the fertile plains of Italy became a prey to the devastation of unrelenting war. Remote from scenes of blood and outrage, he sought improvement in travel; resolving not to return home till his country should again enjoy repose, and to wait the issue of the late eventful conflict which has subverted the political system of Europe.—After having resided some time in Germany, Mr. Acerbi visited Denmark, and thence, by the ordinary passage of the Sound, entered Sweden. It was in the autumn of 1798 that he landed at the small town of Helsinborg: but the season was already too far advanced; and it was perhaps, in that northern climate, the most uncomfortable time in the whole year, since the cold rains now prevailed, and the clear dry frosts of winter had not commenced. This circumstance appears to have produced an unfavourable impression on his mind. Natives, and even strangers, unanimously (and, we believe, with justice,) praise the cheapness and expedition of travelling in Sweden: but Mr. A. feels inclined to dispute the general opinion. He arrived, with his friend Mr. Bellotti, (whose name is only once incidentally mentioned,) ill prepared for travelling in such a country. They had indeed brought with them a *Wiener Wagen*, or one of those carriages built at Vienna, which, though much esteemed in Germany and sufficiently commodious, are yet of a heavy construction; but they had engaged

peasants who live dispersed at some distance. The
are small, but hardy and active; and the ordinary tra
velling is about six or seven miles in an hour. The ro
indeed admirable, and, with some exceptions, superi
those of England: which excellence is owing partl
nature of the country, and partly to the judicious reg
that have been adopted. Sweden may be considere
continued field of granite, which affords a dry hard
and plenty of the best materials is every where found,
the roads in constant repair. Rock is the predomina
but its nakedness is in general covered with moss, o
by pines; and the traveller contemplates (it may al
said) one extensive forest, broken with frequent la
leaving only some small spots, where the scanty soil i
of cultivation. The surface is hilly, or rather craggy, b
mountainous. The roads are laid out with equal a
skill, and wind with gentle bendings through the woods
the sides of the sombre lakes. In a country so thinl
as Sweden, where the forests, the rocks, and the lak
to dispute with man the occupation of the soil, we ca
pect frequent towns, nor even villages; and it is co
therefore, in the more sequestered parts, for the tr
carry some provisions with him. To balance this
nience, however, his expences are extremely modera
charge for each horse, three years ago, was only a
penny for the English mile.

In his journey to Gothenburg, Mr. Acerbi found lit
noticing. The most conspicuous place in the roa
berg, a small village with a fortress, seated boldly on
of the sea. Gothenburg contains about fifteen thous
bitants, and is reckoned the second city of the king
enjoys a very large share of trade. Its situation is p
romantic, on the side of the river Gotha, at some
from its mouth, and encircled by an amphitheatre of
and dreary rocks. In its interior it resembles the
Holland, being intersected by canals, with rows of tr
their margin, regularly clipped in the Dutch fashio

inhabitants of this place vie with those of the capital in every species of luxury. They are hospitable and friendly to strangers, and the ladies are celebrated for their amiable manners and elegant accomplishments.—A foundling-hospital has been erected at Gothenburg on a very liberal plan. Such institutions are no doubt prompted by the purest motives of humanity; yet we question whether they be entirely consistent with political wisdom. They may prevent some foul crimes; but, on the other hand, they certainly encourage licentiousness; and the children thrown on the public, after having received an expensive education, seldom become good members of society.

From Gothenburg, Mr. A. went to view the famous canal of Trolhätta, at the distance of about fifty miles. The navigation of the river Gotha, which connects the spacious lake Wenner with the sea, is here interrupted, for the space of three miles, by a succession of frightful cataracts and rapids. Nothing on this side of the Atlantic can exceed the wild sublimity of the scenery. A vast body of water, almost of the whole of the Gotha, pent into a narrow channel, precipitates itself with awful crash from a height of upwards of sixty feet into a fathomless abyss; and, while yet boiling and foaming, it again dashes repeatedly from other ledges, and then rushes along with fury over a rocky bottom, till it spends its force and loses itself in a wide basin. In front of the spectator, rises perpendicularly to an altitude of three or four hundred feet, a rampart of granitic rock, which, bristling with its darksome pines, frowns majestically over the cataract. The other side presents a pleasing contrast, several saw-mills being perched among the cliffs, and turned by small detached torrents *.

Gustavus Vasa conceived the magnificent plan of joining the Baltic with the North Sea, by connecting a chain of lakes, the Mälar, the Hjelmar, and the Wenner, which are not far disjoined; and which, with the river Gotha, would form a communication extending from Stockholm to Gothenburg. Were this scheme realized, besides the obvious commercial advantages which it offers, the Swedes might avoid paying the Sound dues to Denmark: but the construction of a canal at Trolhätta, which was part of the plan, appeared of more immediate and practical utility. It was begun by Charles XII,

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* The etymology of the name *Trolhätta* is expressive of the feelings of the simple natives It is compounded of two Swedish words, *Troll* and *Hutta;* the first of which, equivalent to the English *Trull* or *Drole*, signifies a *witch* or *gypsy*, and the second denotes a *hut* or *habitation*. All remarkable appearances are ascribed by the vulgar to the power of magic. *Rev.*

whose passionate love of glory, had it been rightly directed, would have proved highly beneficial to his kingdom; and the attempt was at different times resumed in the succeeding reigns, and large sums of money were foolishly squandered without making any solid advancement. At last the undertaking was transferred to a company of merchants, deeply interested in its success, and who subscribed liberally on the prospect of a toll granted to them. Under their active management, the canal was prosecuted, and completed in five or six years. Mr. Acerbi saw it in its progress, and again after it was finished. It is certainly the grandest work of the kind that has been yet executed, and reflects the highest credit on the spirit and ingenuity of the Swedish nation.—To form a just idea of the difficulties surmounted, we must not consider the length of the canal so much as its great width, the frequency of the locks, and the refractory nature of the materials in which the excavation is made. It is cut through a hill, or continued rock of the hardest granite, by the force of gun-powder and the usual operations of mining; and the canal has nine locks, with their intermediate basins; of which the depth is about sixteen, and the breadth twenty-two feet. It can therefore admit ships of very large burthen.

Proceeding from Trolhätta to Stockholm, Mr. A. found that the face of the country began to improve. The woods became enlivened by an intermixture of birch and mountain-ash; and he saw some oaks also, but they were rare, and stunted or decayed *.—In approaching the capital, the traveller stopped to view the royal stables in the park of Strömsholm; and he was there struck with a circumstance which merits attention. The horses were allowed no litter, but stood on a raised floor composed of boards with open joints. This plan is common in Norway and Denmark, where cows and even pigs are likewise housed on similar platforms. The animals are in this way easily kept clean and dry; and to this practice it is perhaps owing that, in those northern countries, a foundered horse is seldom to be seen. In the mode followed in other places, the warm humid compost of dung and litter seems to have the effect of making the feet tender and liable to disease. We are glad to learn that the Duke of York has,

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* On this occasion, we may remark that the oak and wheat affect the same temperature, and are fitted only for the middle regions of the globe. They will not grow spontaneously beyond the latitude of 58 degrees at the level of the sea. Oaks are unknown between the tropics, and wheat does not thrive in that burning climate.

by way of experiment, directed some barracks to be constructed on the Swedish plan.

In Sweden, as indeed in Denmark and the north of Germany, the principal crop is rye; and next come oats, pease, and a little barley. Scarcely any wheat is grown, except in the plains of Upsal, and in the province of Scania, which is of a very distinct character from the rest of the kingdom. Mr. Acerbi treats the agriculture of the Swedes with some severity: but, had he made the proper allowance for the quality of the soil and the nature of the climate, he would have found more to praise than to blame. Their implements are simple, yet well constructed and managed with skill. The scantiness of provisions in Sweden obliges the inhabitants to bring as much of the surface under cultivation as they can possibly manage. In many parts, the woods are cleared, as in North America, by setting fire to the trees, when the plough is introduced among the charred trunks, and the ground roughly scratched: but this indiscreet passion for tillage is often, as also in the New World, productive of the worst consequences. The thin soil, pulverized by the summer heats, is soon swept away by the rains of autumn, and leaves the bare rock encumbered sometimes with loose masses of granite. No trees spring up to cover the surface, for their scattered seeds can hardly take root; and the tender shoots, now without shelter, cannot withstand the fury of the piercing winds. Whole tracts are thus condemned to perpetual sterility, and remind the traveller of the *Terra del Fuego* of the Patagonians.

It is somewhat remarkable that heath, which spreads over the high grounds in England and covers the mountains of Wales and Scotland, is rarely seen even in the wildest parts of Sweden: in fact, both that plant and furze are almost unknown on the Continent.—In certain seasons, the cows are dispersed in the woods, where they pick up a coarse herbage. Those who tend the herds, and who are generally females, call them together by means of a pipe or trumpet, five feet long, composed of two pieces of birch hollowed, and bound firmly together by a ribband of the inner bark. This rude instrument gives a shrill woodland note, which is heard at a great distance.

Stockholm, where the author spent the winter, is rendered by its situation unquestionably the most picturesque capital in Europe. It is built on a number of small islands at the extremity of the lake Mälar, which there discharges itself into a narrow inlet communicating with the Baltic Sea. The surrounding rocky heights are sprinkled with trees, or enlivened by frequent villas; and from these eminences, the stranger

enjoys

enjoys the most enchanting prospect. Crowded buildings, noble edifices, castles, spires, and ships, appear floating as by the effect of magic in a blue expanse of water.—The new quarters of the city are regular and elegant. A stately range of houses, occupied by the principal merchants, extends along the quay, to which vessels of the greatest burthen may approach. The palace is a simple but majestic structure; and the residence of the princess royal and the opera-house are deservedly admired as fine pieces of architecture.—In winter, the scene is totally changed. The several islands become united in one field of ice; and even the gulf below the Mälar, being (like the waters of the Baltic) only brackish, does not long resist the impression of the frost. It is then the season of amusement and festivity. All ages mingle in one crowd. Sledges, and other vehicles mounted on slides, sweep with rapidity along the ice, by the sides of the ships now fast locked: while skaters whirl in giddy mazes, and astonish the spectators by the dexterity of their feats. Mr. Acerbi relates an incident that happened during his stay at Stockholm, which will give an idea of the severity of the cold in that high latitude:

'In the winter 1799, I beheld at Stockholm a spectacle of a very uncommon nature, and such as I never, in all probability, shall see a second time. It was a sugar-house on fire in the suburb, on the south side of the city. The accident being announced by the discharge of cannon, all the fire-engines were immediately hurried to the aid of the owners. The severity of that winter was so great, that there was not a single spot near, where the water was not frozen to the depth of a yard from the surface. It was necessary to break the ice with hatchets and hammers, and to draw up the water as from a well. Immediately on filling the casks, they were obliged to carry them off with all possible speed, lest the water should be congealed, as in fact about a third part of it was by the time it could be brought to the place where it was wanted. In order to prevent it as much as possible from freezing, they constantly kept stirring it about with a stick; but even this operation had only a partial effect. At last, by the united power of many engines, which launched forth a great mass of water, the fire was got under, after destroying only the roof, the house itself being very little damaged. It was in the upper stories of the building that the stock of sugar was deposited; there were also many vessels full of treacle, which being broken by the falling in of the roof, the juice ran down along the sides of the walls. The water thrown up to the top of the house by the engines, and flowing back on the walls, stair cases, and through the windows, was stopped in its downward course by the mighty power of the frost. After the fire was extinguished, the engines continued for some time to play, and the water they discharged was frozen almost the instant it came in contact with the walls already covered with ice. Thus a house was formed of the most extraordinary appearance that it is possible to conceive. It was so curious an object that every body came to gaze at it as a something wonderful. The whole building from top to bottom was incrusted with a thick coat of ice: the doors and windows were closed up, and in order to gain admission it was necessary with hammers and hatchets to open a passage; they were obliged to cut through the ice another stair-case, for the purpose of ascending to the upper stories. All the rooms, and what remained of the roof, were embellished by long stalactites of multifarious shapes, and of a yellowish colour, composed of the treacle and congealed water. This building, contemplated in the light of the sun, seemed to bear some analogy to those diamond castles that are raised by the imaginations of poets. It remained upwards of two months in the same state, and was visited by all the curious. The children in particular had excellent amusement with it, and contributed not a little to the destruction of the enchanted palace, by searching for the particles of sugar, which were found in many places incorporated with the ice.'

During the summer months, when the short absence of the sun is supplied by twilight, people of condition leave town and retire to their villas, where they live in a style of great magnificence. Art is employed to second the productions of nature: their hot-houses afford peaches, pine-apples, and grapes; and all sorts of wines, liquors, and other delicacies, are lavished at their tables. The ceremonious air of the capital is laid aside, and ease and unrestrained freedom prevail.—The entertainments at the country-houses of the merchants are at once the most agreeable and the most splendid. They form the richest class in the north; and the nobility, unable to cope with them in expence, yet imbued with the pride of birth, are apt to distinguish themselves by lofty carriage and punctilious politeness.

People on the Continent seldom take exercise on horseback; and the Swedes are so much attached to card-playing, that they cannot have a proper relish for the pleasures of the country. From Stockholm, the principal excursions are to the royal parks in the vicinity. Haga is a charming retreat, where the late king built a small palace with great taste. The castle of Drottningholm, or Queen's Island, is a magnificent edifice, beautifully situated on the margin of the lake Mälar. This is the usual residence of the court; and in the gardens adjoining, is an annual exhibition of the *tournament*, in which the laws and ceremonies of chivalry are strictly observed.—The deer park of Stockholm is of large extent, planted with trees of various kinds, among which are some aged oaks. The court makes a formal procession round it on the first of May.—Another remarkable custom is thus related:

'On the twenty-fourth of June, or Midsummer-day, it is the custom to place shrubs and flowers at the doors of great houses, as they do in France on the first of May, and according to what I have heard also in England. On that day the king and royal family come to the park, where they take up their abode in tents for the remainder of the month, that is, for the space of nearly a week. A camp is formed of the garrison of Stockholm, composed of two regiments of foot-guards, some companies of horse-guards, and a corps of artillery. Along the lines of the camp they raise poles or posts, adorned with branches of cyphers, and sometimes scutcheons with mottos or devices. At the foot of the posts are placed barrels of beer on wooden frames: about six or seven o'clock in the afternoon, on a particular signal, the barrels are opened; when each soldier is presented with a pipe, a loaf of bread, two herrings, and some money. All this is done at the expence of the officers. In the mean time the military music plays, and the soldiers begin to drink and to dance. Upon each of the barrels sits a soldier, in the form of a Bacchus, or some other figure, more or less ridiculous. Those that are dressed up in this manner first take the liquor and propose the toasts, which are generally numerous, and constantly accompanied with the cry of *vivat*, answering to the English huzza. When any of the royal family, or a general officer, chance to pass by, their healths are drank, and always with the same accompaniment of *vivat*. A kind of masquerade ensues for a short time, during which the soldiers amuse the people, that flock round them in the lines of the camp, with songs, and indulge themselves in various freaks and acts of merriment. On the beating of the retreat, every thing is again submitted to the reign of order. Such festivals, without diminishing respect, certainly tend to excite in the soldiery and people an interest and attachment to the royal family.'

The severity of the winter at Stockholm is less felt than might be expected. The Swedish stove is of the very best construction, and it diffuses an agreeable warmth through the apartment, with the smallest expence of fuel. In order to enable themselves to encounter the keen air out of doors, the natives use additional clothing and outer shoes, and wrap themselves in pellices: with which precautions, Mr. Acerbi asserts, though the cold was below 25 degrees of Celsius, or 13 below zero of Fahrenheit's scale, he suffered less from it than he had sometimes done in Italy. During the winter months, people of fortune spend their evenings in banquets, assemblies, concerts, and operas. The balls at the Exchange are particularly attractive. They are frequented by the royal family, and all the beauty and fashion of the capital are seen there collected. The Swedish ladies are in general extremely handsome; possessing fine shapes, soft Grecian features, and clear blooming complexions: but this mild retiring sort of beauty was not, it seems, quite to the taste of an Italian. He considered it as rather insipid, and he prefers the dark sparkling eyes and animated vivacity which distinguish the ladies of the South. He alleges, indeed, that the females of Sweden are of a cold temperament, incapable of ardent attachments, and actuated chiefly by vanity and a passion for dress and finery: that they are somewhat inclined to coquetry, fond of admiration, and flattered by public notice and distinction.

Stockholm contains no *women of the town*; but it is usual to keep mistresses by a sort of partnership. The venal beauty receives the visits of several lovers, perhaps seven or eight, who jointly contribute to support her in a style far above her condition in life. She exacts from them the most ceremonious attentions in public, and none are admitted to share her favours without a previous introduction and a formal courtship.

To give our readers a full idea of the state of society in Stockholm, we transcribe Mr. Acerbi's description of a Swedish entertainment. The picture, we believe, is on the whole exact, but we think that the colouring is somewhat overcharged:

> 'The Swedish dinner parties are expensive arrangements of show and formality. It will often happen that out of forty or fifty people, who appear in consequence of an invitation sent with all possible ceremony, and perhaps a week or a fortnight before the appointed day, scarcely three or four know one another sufficiently to make the meeting agreeable. A foreigner may still fare worse, and have the misfortune of being seated near a person totally unacquainted with any language but his own. Before the company sit down to dinner, they first pay their respects to a side-table laden with bread, butter, cheese, pickled salmon, and *liqueur*, or brandy; and by the tasting of these previous to their repast, endeavour to give an edge to their appetite, and to stimulate the stomach to perform its office. After this prelude, the guests arrange themselves about the dinner table, where every one finds at his place three kinds of bread, flat and coarse rye bread, white bread, and brown bread. The first sort of bread is what the peasants eat; it is crisp and dry: the second sort is common bread; but the brown, last mentioned, has a sweet taste, being made with the water with which the vessels in the sugar houses are washed, and is the nastiest thing possible. All the dishes are at once put upon the table, but no one is allowed to ask for what he likes best, the dishes being handed round in regular succession; and an Englishman has often occasion for all his patience to wait till the one is put in motion on which he has fixed his choice. The Swedes are more knowing in this respect, and, like the French, eat of every thing that comes before them: and although the different dishes do not seem to harmonize together, yet such is the force of habit, that the guests apparently find no inconvenience from the most opposite mixtures. Anchovies, herrings, onions, eggs, pastry, often meet together on the same plate, and are swallowed promiscuously. The sweet is associated with the the sour, mustard with sugar, confectionaries with salt meat or salt

fish; in short, eatables are intermingled with a poetical licence, that sets the precept of Horace at defiance—

Sed non ut placidis coeant immitia.

An Italian is not very much at a loss at these feasts; but an Englishman finds himself quite uncomfortable and out of his element: he sees no wine drank either with the ladies or the gentlemen during dinner; but must take it himself in a solitary manner: he is often obliged to wait *for hours* before he can help himself to what he prefers to eat, and when the meat arrives, he generally thinks it not dressed plain enough, but disagreeable from the quantity of spices with which it is seasoned. After dinner the ladies do not leave him to his bottle; he is expected to adjourn immediately with them to the drawing-room, where the company, after thanking the master and mistress of the house with a polite or rather ceremonious bow for their good cheer, are regaled with tea and coffee. I have not entered into a circumstantial description of these long dinners, but only given the general outline, that I might not inflict upon my readers that *ennui*, which I confess I have myself sometimes experienced when I was among the number of the guests. In the interval between dinner and supper, which however, from the many hours that are thought necessary for the acts of eating and drinking, is not long, there is no amusement whatever but playing at cards. If you cannot join in this rational recreation, you are abandoned to your fate, and may sit in some corner of the room, indulging in meditation on whatever subject you please.'

The stiffness which pervades the Swedish manners seems to originate in the court;—the most formal, certainly, in Europe, and entrenched in ceremonies and etiquette. The dress, however, being the national costume, is not expensive.

'A drawing-room terminates commonly in a public supper for the royal family, who sit alone at table, all the nobility and officers of the kingdom standing round as mere spectators. The ladies of the senators, and others of equal rank, have the privilege of being seated on *tabourets*, placed in semicircles at a distance from the table, in front of the king and queen. The household officers of the different branches of the royal family stand behind the chair of the personage to whom they belong: the senators at his Majesty's left hand, and the ambassadors with other foreigners of distinction at his right. The king speaks to every one according to their rank, the degree of favour they possess with him, or other circumstances. The dishes are served, and the plates presented to the royal family by an officer called gentleman of the court. The marshal stands directly opposite the king during the whole of the entertainment, and the steward of his Majesty's household a little to the right behind him. Though the presence of these officers be wholly useless, it is thought necessary to complete the groupe. When the king has dined, he makes a sign to the queen and to the rest of the family, and all having answered with a bow, he rises from the table, takes a most gracious leave, and withdraws to his own apartments, followed by the officers of the court. The rest of the royal family do the same; no one presumes to retire before they have quitted the room.'

Yet, to form a singular contrast with this ceremoniousness, there is no country in which the king and the princes of the blood mix more familiarly with the people. Gustavus III. gave private suppers twice or thrice in a week; no ceremony nor distinction was then observed; and his majesty delighted the company by pointed remarks and sallies of wit and humour. The duke of Sudermania, when regent, was also very attentive to his guests: but the present king, though studiously polite, is of a reserved character; and gaiety, magnificence, and pleasure, are banished from the court.—Gustavus III. was fond of distinction, and had exalted notions of regal power. His affability and address won the hearts of the people. He was anxious to lull them into security, by diffusing a taste for pleasure and even for licentious dissipation; and all his schemes appeared directed to that end. The sciences he treated with neglect; and even the fine arts, which he encouraged, were only designed to mollify and subdue the independent spirit of the Swedes, and to divert their thoughts from his ambitious views. Under his reign, the national manners became visibly relaxed. Charles XII. lavished indeed the blood of the Swedes, but he inflamed their pride and heroism. Gustavus III. sought to extinguish every spark of honour, and every sentiment of freedom. His memory, therefore, is regretted only by painters, musicians, comedians, and *particular* favourites.—During the regency of the duke of Sudermania, a considerable change and improvement took place in the Swedish government. Peace was cultivated and œconomy practised. Liberty of discussion was tacitly permitted; and people again began to feel the inspiration of freedom.—The present king has adopted a line of conduct in every respect the reverse of that of his uncle. With feeble powers of mind, he is yet obstinate and conceited, and ambitious of governing without ministers. Under the influence of two priests, he is deeply tinctured with superstition; and the established form of Lutheran worship degenerates into the rites and ceremonies of popery. The liberty of the press is completely extinct; the reign of ignorance and bigotry gains ground; and Sweden now appears doomed to sink into the gloomy barbarism which envelopes Portugal and Spain.

Mr. Acerbi employs two chapters in describing the Swedish academies or learned societies, with characteristic anecdotes of the members. In his preliminary remarks, he questions whether, in the present advanced state of knowlege, such associations are of real and unalloyed utility; whether, like other corporations, they do not tend to a narrow exclusive spirit, and are not apt to degenerate into servile engines of the court; and he apprehends that, instead of anticipating the public voice and cherishing the efforts of rising genius, they have often employed their influence in discouraging and repressing them. Are not all institutions, however, liable to similar abuses? Men must be actuated by grosser motives than the mere love of science or the arts. The passion of vanity produces a beneficial alliance of rank, wealth, and talents. Activity is thus roused, emulation kindled, and many discoveries are brought to light which, without such powerful excitements, would have perished in embryo.

There are three academies at Stockholm: 1. The *Academy of Belles-Lettres*, the objects of which are antiquities and monumental inscriptions. It consists of twenty ordinary members, fourteen honorary, and sixteen foreign, amounting in all to fifty.—2dly, The *Swedish Academy*, instituted by the late king for the purpose of refining the Swedish language, which possesses great natural beauties, and is extremely soft and mellifluous. It has only eighteen members.—3dly, The *Royal Academy of Sciences*, which was founded in 1739. The members are composed of one hundred natives, and a considerable number of foreign associates. Their memoirs are published quarterly. The only funds of the society are the profits arising from the exclusive sale of almanacs, and which amount annually to nearly four hundred pounds. In 1799 the Academy was divided into *seven* classes; an arrangement altogether capricious, derived apparently from a veneration for that mystical number.—Mr. Acerbi names the members of each academy, and gives short sketches of their characters: but we wish that this part of his journal had been suppressed. To an Englishman it cannot be very interesting, and the information must evidently be drawn from suspicious sources. Spleen or disappointment will vent itself in caricaturing obnoxious individuals; and a traveller makes a very ungracious return for the civilities with which he is loaded, when he employs his time in raking together satirical anecdotes. Some of the academicians are mentioned in terms much below their deserts, and others are treated with unmerited disrespect. We would instance particularly Mr. Edelcrantz, a gentleman of taste and mechanical invention; who, we understand, is now at Paris, and means to spend the winter in England and Scotland.

The curious traveller derives both amusement and instruction from visiting the chamber of models at Stockholm. He there sees a multitude of ingenious contrivances of various kinds, calculated for the improvement of agriculture and manufactures. The annual exhibition of paintings, which takes

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place in March, is another source of entertainment. It is freely open to the public, and is for some time a fashionable resort. The productions exposed are on the whole very respectable.

In the Swedish dominions are three universities; those of Lund, Upsala, and Abo *. Lund is situated in Scania, within sight of the Danish shores, on a healthy fertile plain. The number of professors, with their *adjuncts* or assistants, amounts to fifty. There are generally about three hundred students, chiefly of the poorer sort, and formerly noted for their riotous disposition. The studies pursued are chiefly the languages, ethics, law, and theology.—The celebrated university of Upsala was founded in 1346, on the model of that of Bologna; and it was in the sequel amply endowed by Gustavus Vasa. Many scholarships are annexed to it; and there are about sixty professors, with their assistants. The number of students was formerly very great; and even so late as the year 1730 it amounted to two thousand: but at present they seldom exceed five hundred. They are decent and assiduous. All the branches of knowlege are ably taught, and Upsala is justly esteemed the first seminary of the North.—The university of Abo in Finland was founded in 1640, by the famous queen Christina. It is endowed with the same privileges as Upsala, but on a smaller scale. The Swedish have, like the German universities, two courses annually: but (which appears peculiar to them, and is very commendable,) they associate in their body the teachers of the polite accomplishments, those of the modern languages, of dancing, fencing, and music. In Sweden, judicious measures have been adopted for diffusing elementary instruction. Every parish has a school, in which reading and writing are gratuitously taught; and in all the towns there are *gymnasia* for the study of the antient languages, supported likewise at the expence of government. Denmark is still more attentive to the education of her subjects. Provisions to the same effect are general in the Prussian states, and throughout the whole of protestant Germany.—It is truly painful to observe that England, possessing many noble advantages, is so far behind the rest of Europe in establishments for the education of youth. The ignorance of the lower orders is one evident cause of the multiplied crimes and disorders which fill our gaols.

[*To be continued.*]

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* Pronounced Oboo. *Rev.*

Art. II. *Thalaba the Destroyer;* a Metrical Romance. By Robert Southey. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

It is not easy either to class or to appreciate this singular performance. It has many faults and many striking beauties. It is irregular and splendid, improbable and interesting, and at once extravagant and elaborate. It presents us with European characters in the costume of Arabia, and combines in one fantastic assemblage the mythologies of Persia with the fictions of the Koran and the superstitions of our Western world. The hand of a poet is discernible throughout, but it changes its instrument and its tone rather too often; and it blends the Lyric and Dramatic style with the sober strain of the Epic, rather more copiously than the strict rules of harmonious composition will admit.—The versification corresponds with the irregularity of the whole structure. It is a medley of all sorts of measures in blank verse, and furnishes fully as many instances of harsh and startling transitions, as of pleasing and original harmonies.

The story and action of the poem are altogether oriental. The father and brethren of Thalaba had been assassinated at the instigation of certain associated sorcerers, whom the stars had forewarned of their danger from that family: but the mother and her infant son are saved by the special interposition of heaven, and are represented as flying at midnight across the desarts of Arabia.—The poem opens with their wanderings; and they are ready to perish with fatigue and hunger, when all at once a stately palace and magnificent garden rise up in the moonshine before them.—They pass through its solitary walks, and at last discover a man lying under a tree, who tells them that this is the paradise of *Irem*, constructed many ages before by Shedad the King; who, for his impiety, was cut off by the visitation of Providence, with all his people, and whose splendid paradise was left desolate and forsaken. A spell was cast upon the place, by virtue of which it had ever since remained invisible, and he (the narrator) had been the only inhabitant of its solitude for years and centuries which he had forgotten to number. When this narrative is concluded, the death-angel makes his appearance, and takes away the life-sick man and the weeping mother of Thalaba; announcing at the same time to him that he was destined to revenge his father's death, and to root out the sorcerer's breed from the world.—The curtain is then dropped, and the first book ended.

Our readers will easily perceive that there is no great artifice in the contrivance of this fable. The feelings are called forth for the widow and the stranger, and an interest is excited in regard to them that is expected to be carried through most of the poem: instead of which, they both pass off without a minute's warning, and leave the reader to find a new hero, and the author to make a new *beginning* to his fable.—It would be unjust to Mr. Southey, however, not to take some notice of the many poetical beauties which are contained in this book.—The subsequent lines have a portion of Miltonic grandeur in their structure, united to a certain barbaric splendour:

> 'Trees of such ancient majesty
> Towered not on Yemen's happy hills,
> Nor crowned the stately brow of Lebanon.
> Fabric so vast, so lavishly enriched,
> For Idol, or for Tyrant, never yet
> Raised the slave-race of men
> In Rome, nor in the elder Babylon,
> Nor old Persepolis,
> Nor where the family of Greece
> Hymned Eleutherian Jove.
> Here studding azure tablatures
> And rayed with feeble light,
> Star-like the ruby and the diamond shone:
> Here on the golden towers
> The yellow moon-beam lay;
> Here with white splendour floods the silver wall.
> Less wonderous pile and less magnificent
> Sennamar built at Hirah, tho' his art
> Sealed with one stone the ample edifice,
> And made its colours, like the serpent's skin,
> Play with a changeful beauty.'——

The more minute description of the palace is rather tedious, and is very particular without being distinct. Amid the glare of gold, silver, and precious stones, one image came upon us with a refreshing simplicity:

> 'Here emerald columns o'er the marble courts
> Fling their green rays, as when amid a shower
> The sun shines loveliest on the vernal corn.'

A considerable strength of poetical fancy, as well as truth of feeling, is displayed in the following lamentation:

> 'Oh! who can tell the unspeakable misery
> Of solitude like this!
> No sound hath ever reached my ear
> Save of the passing wind.
> The fountain's everlasting flow;
> The forest in the gale,

The pattering of the shower,
Sounds dead and mournful all.
No bird hath ever closed her wing
Upon these solitary bowers,
No insect sweetly buzzed amid these groves,
From all things that have life,
Save only me, concealed —
I know not for what ages I have dragged
This miserable life,
How often I have seen
These antient trees renewed,
What countless generations of mankind
Have risen and fallen asleep,
And I remain the same!"

The idea of duration is forcibly conveyed also by this passage:

'The trees and flowers remain
By Nature's care perpetuate and self-sown.
The marble statues long have lost all trace
Of heroes and of chiefs,
Huge shapeless stones they lie
O'er-grown with many a flower.'

The second book transports us into the den of the sorcerers, in 'the Domdaniel caverns under the roots of the ocean;' where they are raging and fretting, on finding that any of the Destroyer's race have escaped.—Here is a specimen of Mr. S.'s powers in the horrible:

'A Teraph stood against the cavern side,
A new-born infant's head,
That Khawla at his hour of birth had seized
And from the shoulders wrung.
It stood upon a plate of gold,
An unclean Spirit's name inscribed beneath.
The cheeks were deathy dark,
Dark the dead skin upon the hairless skull;
The lips were bluey pale;
Only the eyes had life,
They gleamed with demon light.'

Abdaldar, one of the magicians, is then sent out to seek and destroy the surviving child:

'Him every morn the all-beholding Eye
Saw from his couch, unhallowed by a prayer,
Rise to the scent of blood,
And every night lie down.
That rankling hope within him, that by day
Goaded his steps, still stinging him in sleep,
And startling him with vain accomplishment

From visions still the same.
Many a time his wary hand
To many a youth applied the Ring,
And still the dagger in his mantle hid
Was ready for the deed.

'At length to the cords of a tent
That were stretched by an Island of Palms
In the desolate sea of the sands,
The weary traveller came.
Under a shapely palm,
Herself as shapely, there a Damsel stood:
She held her ready robe,
And looked towards a Boy,
Who from the tree above
With one hand clinging to its trunk,
Cast with the other down the clustered dates.'

The youth was Thalaba: but before the sorcerer could find an opportunity of aiming his blow, the whole pious family prostrate themselves in prayer:

'All, save Abdaldar; over Thalaba
He stands, and lifts the dagger to destroy.
Before his lifted arm received
Its impulse to descend,
The Blast of the Desert came.
Prostrate in prayer, the pious family
Felt not the Simoom pass.
They rose, and lo! the Sorcerer lying dead,
Holding the dagger in his blasted hand.'

The third book contains an account of Thalaba's youth and education. A pious Arab had found him and educated him as his own child in a solitary tent, where he had formed an innocent and ardent attachment to Oneiza, the daughter of his protector.—Much vivacity and poetical painting occur in the descriptive part of this book, as well as tenderness and simplicity of sentiment.

Thalaba, having taken a magic ring from the finger of Abdaldar, and by means of it having procured his father's bow and arrows, now waited impatiently for some signal that should call him to his destined work of destruction. A flight of locusts and an eclipse of the sun accomplish this end in a manner not very intelligible, and he sets out alone at the close of the third book on this desperate enterprize.

In the outset of Book IV. he meets his mother's spirit, who tells him to go to Babylon, and petition the angels there for the talisman necessary for his success. He then proceeds, and meets by a fountain's side another sorcerer, who in the disguise of a venerable old man had been sent to seduce or destroy him.—Their conversation is on the whole very fatiguing. The sorcerer endeavours to obtain his predecessor's ring from the youth, but *a wasp stings his finger* opportunely as he is about to draw it off, and the swelling makes it impossible. Then the wizard spreads a mist over the face of the sky, and misleads Thalaba into the depths of the desart; where, after he has suffered intolerable agony from thirst, the old man proposes to him to call for assistance from the genii of the ring, since Allah and the Prophet will not hear them. The Destroyer rejects this counsel with disdain, and the baffled tempter calls his enchanted chariot and prepares to leave him;

> ' And lo! the magic car begins its course!
> Hark! hark!—he screams—Lobaba screams!
> What, wretch, and hast thou raised
> The rushing Terrors of the Wilderness
> To fall on thine own head?
> Death! death! inevitable death!
> Driven by the breath of God,
> A column of the Desert met his way.'

The interest of this book is inferior to that of any of the preceding, and the poetical imagery more scanty and less happily selected.

Book v. conducts the Destroyer to the ruins of Babylon. Some fine description is displayed in this part, but it is too much scattered and disjointed to be exhibited to advantage in a quotation.

In this aweful solitude, he meets with a stranger who professes to have come like himself for the purpose of consulting the angels, and offers to guide him to the cave of their residence: but it soon appears that this votary came for the unholy purpose of compelling these spirits, by diabolical spells, to reveal their profitable secret. Thalaba and he quarrel and fight in the depths of the enchanted cavern, and the stranger is thrown by the Destroyer down the deep abyss which yawned at their feet. Then Thalaba thus addresses the imprisoned spirits:

> " I, Thalaba, the Servant of the Lord,
> Invoke you; hear, me Angels! so may Heaven
> Accept and mitigate your penitence.
> I go to root from earth the Sorcerer brood,
> Tell me the needful Talisman!"

> ' Thus as he spake, recumbent to the rock
> Beyond the black abyss,
> Their forms grew visible.
> A settled sorrow sate upon their brows,
> Sorrow alone, for trace of guilt and shame
> No more remained; and gradual as by prayer

The sin was purged away,
Their robe of glory, purified of stain,
Resumed the lustre of its native light.

'In awe the youth received the answering voice,
"Son of Hodeirah! thou hast proved it here;
The Talisman is Faith."'

This passage terminates the fifth book and the first volume. On the morning after his return from the cave, Thalaba finds a horse without a bridle standing by his side; who invites him by his gestures to mount, and carries him forwards for two whole days. The animal leaves him at last on the second evening in a valley, where 'he laid him down to sleep;' on the following morning, he proceeds towards the mountain; and, after having wound up a long ascent, he enters a close passage in the rock which opened at length into an enchanted valley. Here he meets with troops of banqueters, resists the wiles of many siren forms, and plunges into the solitude of the forest in order to enjoy the melancholy of his own thoughts.

'Deserts of Araby!
His soul returned to you.
He cast himself upon the earth
And closed his eyes, and called
The voluntary vision up.
A cry as of distress
Aroused him; loud it came, and near!
He started up, he strung his bow,
He plucked the arrow forth.
Again a shriek—a woman's shriek!
And lo! she rushes thro' the trees,
Her veil all rent, her garments torn!
He follows close, the ravisher—
Even on the unechoing grass
She hears his tread, so close!
"Prophet, save me; save me, God!
Help! help!" she cried to Thalaba.
Thalaba drew the bow.
The unerring arrow did its work of death.
He turned him to the woman, and beheld
His own Oneiza, his Arabian Maid.'

In the seventh book, Oneiza tells him that she had been carried away from her father's tent in the night, and brought to this polluted paradise, to be 'a houri of the earth.' They confer together on the possibility of their escape: but all egress is found to be impracticable, and Thalaba resolves to attack the sorcerer lord of this unholy place. This he accomplishes in a way which it would be tedious for us to describe; and

immediately

immediately avenging lightnings and tempests destroy the paradise of Sin. Thalaba and Oneiza return down the valley, and meet the army of a pious Sultan, who had taken arms against the departed sorcerer. The Destroyer is received with great honour; and, elated with his success and the recovery of his Oneiza, he urges her to consent to their immediate union: but she bids him consider that her father is in sorrow, and his own mission still unaccomplished. At length, however, she consents, and the nuptials are celebrated with great pomp and festivity.—The tragical termination of the scene is intimated somewhat abruptly in these two lines, with which the book concludes;

> 'Who comes from the bridal chamber?
> It is Azrael, the Angel of Death.'

The next book shows us Thalaba lying on the grave of his bride:

> 'The sun, and the wind, and the rain
> Had rusted his raven locks,
> His cheeks were fallen in,
> His face bones prominent,
> By the tomb he lay along,
> And his lean fingers played,
> Unwitting, with the grass that grew beside.'

Here her father finds him, and her spirit visits them at midnight:

> "O Thalaba!" she cried,
> Abandon not thyself!
> "Wouldst thou for ever lose me?—go, fulfill
> Thy quest, that in the Bowers of Paradise
> In vain I may not wait thee, O my Husband!"
> To Moath then the Spirit
> Turned the dark lustre of her Angel eyes,
> "Short is thy destined path,
> O my dear father! to the abode of bliss.
> Return to Araby,
> There with the thought of death
> Comfort thy lonely age,
> And Azrael the Deliverer soon
> Shall visit thee in peace."'

He then meets with a Dervise, who advises him to go to consult the Simorg respecting his future course; and he proceeds to the dwelling of that fabulous bird, through a weary wilderness of snow. When he is nearly spent with cold and toil, he sees a fire at a distance, and finds a damsel spinning in a cavern, and singing 'an unintelligible song.' She invites him to twine the thread which she was spinning, round his hands,

hands; she then calls her sister sorceress to partake her triumph, and dispose of the captive Destroyer; and after having consulted the dæmons, they carry him away to the island of Mohareb.

The ninth book is on the whole the dullest in the poem: it consists of an account of the different devices which the witches employ to take away the life of the Destroyer, with the interposition by which he is saved: the few following lines, however, may be quoted as a fine description of military music:

> 'He comes! the Sultan! hark the swelling horn,
> The trumpet's spreading blair,
> The timbrel tinkling as its silver bells
> Twinkle aloft, and the shrill cymbal's sound,
> Whose broad brass flashes in the morning sun
> Accordant light and music! closing all
> The heavy Gong is heard,
> That falls like thunder on the dizzy ear.'

In book x., Thalaba is restored to his snowy desart, and proceeds on his pilgrimage to the Simorg.—On his way he again meets with an enchanted habitation, and finds a damsel sleeping in the midst of a garden that blooms in the airy region, by means of a fountain of fire which played all around it. She was the daughter of a magician, and had been destined to die by the hands of Thalaba.—The magician comes, and, aiming at the Destroyer, kills his daughter in his arms; Thalaba spares him in pity, and continues his progress. This episode is narrated in a very pleasing manner, and forms one of the most interesting parts of the volume.

In the eleventh book, Thalaba advances towards the dwelling of the Simorg, under the guidance of a green bird which flies before him, provides him with food, and sleeps every night in his bosom. This was the spirit of Laila, the magician's innocent daughter.—At last,

> 'A sheltered Valley opened on his view!
> It was the Simorg's vale,
> The dwelling of the ancient Bird.
>
> 'On a green and mossy bank,
> Beside a rivulet
> The Bird of Ages stood,
> No sound intruded on his solitude,
> Only the rivulet was heard
> Whose everlasting flow
> From the birth-day of the world had made
> The same unvaried murmuring.
> Here dwelt the all-knowing Bird
> In deep tranquillity,

'His eyelids ever closed
In full enjoyment of profound repose.'

From this venerable animal, the Destroyer receives instructions how to proceed, and mounts a sledge which he finds prepared and yoked with lean black dogs. They set off with him at full speed; by degrees, he descends into a milder climate; and the dogs leave him at a spring, on which floated a little boat steered by a fair damsel, and with one seat for the Destroyer. He embarks with her, and sails till the rivulet opens to a river, and the river widens into a sea:

'The Moon is bright, the sea is calm,
The little boat rides rapidly
Across the ocean waves;
The line of moonlight on the deep
Still follows as they voyage on;
The winds are motionless;
The gentle waters gently part
In murmurs round the prow.
He looks above, he looks around,
The boundless heaven, the boundless sea,
The crescent moon, the little boat,
Nought else above, below.'

At the end of the book, the Destroyer arrives at the rocky shores under which is the entrance to the Domdaniel cave, where he is to take vengeance on all his enemies.

In the beginning of the last book, he enters the terrible recess; and the damsel leaves him at the adamantine gates:

'He tarried not,—he past
The threshold, over which was no return.
All earthly thoughts, all human hopes
And passions now put off,
He cast no backward glance
Towards the gleam of day.
There was a light within,
A yellow light, as when the autumnal Sun
Through travelling rain and mist
Shines on the evening hills.
Whether from central fires effused,
Or if the sunbeams day by day,
From earliest generations, there absorbed,
Were gathering for the wrath-flame. Shade was none
In those portentous vaults;
Crag overhanging, nor the column-rock
Cast its dark outline there,
For with the hot and heavy atmosphere
The light incorporate, permeating all,
Spread over all its equal yellowness.
There was no motion in the lifeless air,

He felt no stirring as he past
Adown the long descent.
He heard not his own footsteps on the rock
That thro' the thick stagnation sent no sound.
How sweet it were, he thought,
To feel the flowing wind!
With what a thirst of joy
He should breathe in the open gales of heaven!'

At the end of a long descent, he finds a car suspended over a dark abyss; and, after having freed a man bound with fiery fetters on the brink, he leaps boldly in, and sinks down an unfathomable depth. He then discomfits a dæmon that guarded the threshold of the rocky doors; and

'Sprung and smote the stony doors,
And bade them in the name of God give way.

'The dying Fiend beneath him at that name
Tossed in worse agony,
And the rocks shuddered, and the rocky doors
Rent at the voice asunder. Lo—within—
The Teraph and the fire,
And Khawla, and in mail complete
Mohareb for the strife.
But Thalaba with numbing force
Smites his raised arm, and rushes by,
For now he sees the fire amid whose flames
On the white ashes of Hodeirah lies
Hodeirah's holy Sword.

'He rushes to the fire,
Then Khawla met the youth
And leapt upon him, and with clinging arms
Clasps him, and calls Mohareb now to aim
The effectual vengeance. O fool! fool! he sees
His father's Sword, and who shall bar his way?
Who stand against the fury of that arm
That spurns her to the earth?'

Then all the sorcerer breed fly before him to the inner cave, where the god of their idolatry was placed,—a gigantic statue, holding a sceptre in one hand:

'His other arm was raised, and its spread palm
Up bore the ocean-weight
Whose naked waters arched the sanctuary,
Sole prop and pillar he.'

The Destroyer then forgives and offers up a prayer for the father of Laila, and is desired by a voice from heaven to ask a boon for himself:

"Prophet of God!" then answered Thalaba,
"I am alone on earth.

> Thou knowest the secret wishes of my heart!
> Do with me as thou wilt! thy will is best."
> ' There issued forth no Voice to answer him,
> But lo! Hodeirah's Spirit comes to see
> His vengeance, and beside him, a pure form
> Of roseate light, the Angel mother hangs.
> " My Child, my dear, my glorious, blessed Child,
> My promise is performed—fulfil thy work!"
> Thalaba knew that his death-hour was come,
> And on he leapt, and springing up,
> Into the Idol's heart
> Hilt-deep he drove the Sword.
> The Ocean-Vault fell in, and all were crushed.
> In the same moment at the gate
> Of Paradise, Oneiza's Houri-form
> Welcomed her Husband to eternal bliss.'

After the numerous extracts which we have now made from this publication, it would be improper to detain our readers with many additional remarks on its merits.—That it contains poetical beauties of the first order, we conceive to be sufficiently proved by some of the quotations which we have already exhibited; and though these may be considered as favourable specimens of the whole work, yet this is an advantage which will scarcely compensate for the deterioration which they must have suffered by being detached from the body of the poem. That there are faults in the composition, however, and some of them very glaring, the same specimens will testify; and there are others which are more apparent on a consideration of the whole work.

The poem is deficient not only in probability, but in connection and consistency of fiction. The death of every new sorcerer is the end of an entire fable and course of action; and there is no more connection nor dependency of parts in the different enterprizes of the Destroyer, than in the seven voyages of Sinbad the sailor. We find no discrimination of character, nor any extended delineation of human actions; we are conversant throughout with nothing but witches and dæmons; and we become so secure of supernatural assistance to the hero, that we cease to take any great concern in his dangers.—We cannot help disapproving, also, the uniform gloominess and melancholy which overcast the whole poem. It begins with assassination, and ends with a general destruction. Every individual to whom we are introduced is miserable, and the innocent and the guilty partake one common lot of wretchedness.—As the fictions are by far too extravagant to have any relation to human life in general, the disastrous colour of the incidents can scarcely produce any of the moral effects of tragic representation, and seem to be a gratuitous sacrifice to the author's predilection for sorrow. This, we will acknowlege, is a peculiarity of taste for which we have but little indulgence; in works of mere imagination, there should be something to please as well as to affect; and a delineation of fancied afflictions is apt to fatigue those who have had any experience of the reality.

The faults of the versification (if versification it can always be called) are very glaring and numerous; and there is a degree of presumption which we are not much inclined to pardon, in the language which Mr. S. employs in recommendation of his mongrel metre. It is now too late, we apprehend, to introduce a new style of versification into the English language; and the measures which were found adequate to the varieties of Shakspeare and Milton ought to satisfy the most ambitious of their successors.—Throughout the poem, also, the author has interspersed too much description; and the notes, though sometimes curious and amusing, are too bulky, and contain rather an ostentasious display of the author's assiduity in collecting materials for his undertaking.

On the whole, we conceive that this work contains more ample and decisive proofs of the author's genius and capacity for poetical impressions, than any of his former publications: but at the same time, we are sorry to observe that it affords no indications of his advancement towards a more correct taste or a more manly style of composition. Together with much that must please readers of every description, it contains not a little that will offend those whose suffrages Mr. Southey should be most ambitious of securing.

Art. III. *The History of England,* from the Accession of King George the Third, to the Conclusion of Peace in the Year 1783. By John Adolphus, Esq. F. S. A. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

The author of these volumes is not unknown to the public, having had more than one opportunity of introducing himself to their acquaintance [*]. In the undertaking in which he is now engaged, his task must be allowed to be particularly delicate; because here he attemps to narrate the events of a recent period, when many of the characters are still moving "on this world's theatre." We may say of such a writer, in the often-quoted language of the great Lyric Poet of Antiquity,

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[*] Vide M. R. Vols. xxx. and xxxi. N. S.

"*Periculosæ plenum opus aleæ*
Tractat; et incedit per ignes
Suppositos cineri doloso."

Mr. Adolphus, however, is not the only gentleman who has braved the dangers of this employment, for we have lately had occasion to notice the productions of Dr. Coote and of Mr. Belsham in the same line. From this circumstance, and considering that the transactions here recorded are fresh in the memory of most of our readers, we think that we shall sufficiently discharge our duty on the present occasion, by making a few extracts to shew in what manner the work is executed.

From the preface, in which some indirect censures are bestowed on contemporary historians, the plan which the author has pursued, and the political sentiments which he has adopted, will immediately appear:

'I will not affect to conceal, (says Mr. A.,) that a regard for the constitution of my country, both in Church and State, ever present to my mind, has diffused itself through my work. I have treated that constitution not as a project, but as an establishment, entitled to veneration from every observer, and to support from all those whom birth or accident has made partakers of its blessings. I have not therefore lent my approbation to crude reforms, or to the conduct of individuals, who, for purposes of ambition, have endeavoured to unsettle that which was fixed, and more than once succeeded in exciting the public mind to a dangerous ferment of disaffection. But in that attachment for the constitution, I have not, I trust, betrayed an indecent violence against those whom I considered its assailants; I have endeavoured to assign to them and to their opponents, indeed to every man, whether exalted or obscure, illustrious from merit, or degraded by crime, his real motives, and true course of conduct.

'I have never been able, nor has the course of my reading given me the inclination, to coincide with those authors or orators, who are pleased to inveigh, with almost indiscriminate severity, against the foreign and domestic government of Great Britain. These highly seasoned invectives may be gratifying to some readers; and to them the more plain, tranquil narrative of undisguised fact may seem insipid: but reputation derived from such sources has neven been the object of my desire; I confine myself with strict forbearance to the paths where I expect to find certain truth, and do not, in order to be thought courageous, attack, where I am sure not to be encountered, nor calumniate those whom station, circumstances, time, or death, render undesirous or incapable of resentment. Far from envying the applauses obtained by those disciples of Thersites, who claim the merit of wit and courage by rancorous abuse on the sovereign, government, and constitution of the country; I can without hesitation declare my opinion, that in the period on which I have written, the throne has been filled by a monarch who has sought the love of his subjects through the means of public spirit and private virtue; and who has tempered a noble desire to preserve from degradation the authority he inherits, with a firm and just regard to the constitution and liberties which conducted him to the throne, and which will ever form its best supports. Far from thinking that the aims of successive administrations have been directed to overthrow the liberties and constitution of the country; I am persuaded that liberty has been better understood, and more effectually and practically promoted during this period, than in any which preceded; and that the affairs of government have been always honestly, though sometimes imprudently, and in the conspicuous instance of the American war unsuccessfully, administered.'

In estimating the character of the Earl of Bute, which has been so variously represented, and in considering the influence which he possessed over his Majesty's mind, we think that Mr. Adolphus has steered equally clear of the two extremes of adulation and prejudice:

'The king's friendship for the earl of Bute, led to extensive and permanent consequences. John earl of Bute, was son of James second earl of Bute, by Ann Campbell, daughter of Archibald first duke of Argyle. He received his education at Eton; and at an early period of his life, was introduced to the household of Frederick prince of Wales, to whom he was lord of the bed-chamber. On the death of the prince he retired to the country, and took no share in political transactions, though he was often consulted by the princess. On the establishment of the young prince's household, he was appointed groom of the stole, in which place he was continued after his accession. He had not occupied any public office; was unacquainted with the business and intrigues of state; and though he possessed an active mind, replete with elegant and abstruse learning, and was well acquainted with the theory of the British constitution *, he was not competent to the task of instructing a young prince in the practical science of governing a kingdom, where the component parts of the legislature are so nicely balanced, and their respective powers and operations so strictly guarded. It could not afford ground of surprize that the king, young and unacquainted with the persons of those who formed a successful and popular administration, should place among his confidential servants, a nobleman whom he had long esteemed, and who possessed the good opinion of his parent in an eminent degree: it could not be a subject of animadversion, that such a person should obtain an ample portion of the king's regard; nor would this circumstance have affected the course of political affairs, had not a new system followed his introduction into the cabinet.

'* The king derived from the conversation of lord Bute, his principal knowledge of the constitution; and lord Bute obtained from Blackstone the most interesting parts of his commentaries on the laws of England while in MS. and laid them before the prince for his instruction.'

'The two last monarchs being foreigners, and opposed by a native prince who had numerous adherents, as well among the people as in some of the most illustrious houses, confided a large portion of their power to a few distinguished families, in order to secure possession of the crown. These families, strengthened by union, and exclusive influence, became not only independent of, but, in many respects, superior to the throne. Swayed by a predilection for their continental dominions, the two first sovereigns of the house of Hanover incurred severe animadversions from the members of opposition. The necessity of frequent justifications, rendered them still more dependent on the leaders of the ministerial party, and reduced them almost to a state of pupilage.

'But the new king being exempt from foreign partialities, ascending the throne at a period when the claims of the exiled family were fallen into contempt, was enabled to emancipate himself from the restraint to which his ancestors had submitted. The earl of Bute formed the plan of breaking the phalanx which constituted and supported the ministry, and of securing the independence of the crown, by a moderate exertion of the constitutional prerogative. This plan in itself was well conceived, and necessary; but the earl of Bute was not a proper person to carry it into effect. He was not connected, either by blood or by familiar intercourse, with the leading families in England: he was not versed in the arts of popularity, or used to the struggles of parliamentary opposition; and his manners were cold, reserved, and unconciliating. Prejudices were easily excited against him as a native of Scotland, and he could only oppose a popular and triumphant administration, and a long established system, by such friends as hope or interest might supply, and by the personal esteem of the king, which was rendered less valuable from the odium attached to the name of favourite.'

In speaking of the resignation of this nobleman in the year 1763, which had been attributed to the invectives contained in "The North Briton," and in order to remove all idea of *secret influence* after his resignation, the author observes:

'In fact, the principal cause of his resignation was the want of support in the cabinet. In a private letter to one of his friends, before he retired from the helm, he more fully explained the real motives of his conduct: "Single," he said, "in a cabinet of my own forming; no aid in the house of lords to support me, except two peers (lords Denbigh and Pomfret); both the secretaries of state silent, and the lord chief justice, whom I myself brought into office, voting for me, yet speaking against me; the ground I tread upon is so hollow, that I am afraid, not only of falling myself, but of involving my royal master in my ruin.—It is time for me to retire!"

'The continuance of the ex-minister's secret influence in the closet, *for a considerable period*, has been so repeatedly and confidently asserted, that to doubt it would seem rashness; yet, perhaps, if we except the negotiations for the ministerial changes soon after his resignation, in which he was occasionally the medium to communicate the king's intentions, no report was ever less consonant to truth: for it was his constant and repeated complaint to his intimate friends, both in his travels and at home, that he was neglected by his sovereign. This avowal from a man so cautious as lord Bute, outweighs all the vague assertions of those who maintained the existence of a mysterious agency, and proves that the loss of his influence had sunk deep in his mind.

'Lord Bute's short administration was rendered additionally unpleasant by his own errors. His undertaking to make peace when the nation was eager for continuing the war; and his offending all those who, by popularity or family connection, were enabled to cooperate effectually in his views; were rash though laudable exertions: and his danger was augmented by his negligence of public applause, and ignorance of the means by which it might be acquired. He was advised to contemn the clamors of the city, for on the least threat of the king's displeasure, those who were then at his throat, would soon be at his feet; and though he neither esteemed nor respected the man who gave this counsel, the tenor of it seems agreeable to his mode of thinking: the consequence was, that the city connected with the admiration of Mr. Pitt, a factious and overbearing spirit of resistance to the exertions of government. Even the virtues of lord Bute were not calculated to insure respect, or conciliate affection. It is said of him, "No man could complain, during his administration, of a promise broken, or of hopes given and not fulfilled. No inferior person in any department where he had served, who did not passionately regret the loss of so easy, so kind a superior." In diminution of this eulogium, it is to be remarked that lord Bute made no promises, and gave no hopes, except to persons whose devotion he meant to secure; and that under him the pernicious precedent was introduced, of removing every dependent of government, even to the lowest clerks in the public offices, to introduce others of his own nomination. This proceeding necessarily created many enemies, and if it gave him some claims to gratitude, those claims were too slight and precariously founded to be much relied on. His patronage of literature and the arts, was liberal and honourable: with what judgment it was bestowed, is not the province of history to discuss; but it does not appear open to the imputation of corrupt or sinister motives.'

The account of Mr. Wilkes's conduct at this period, and of the important discussion to which it gave rise, seems to be correct, and is conveyed in animated language. The historian condemns the measures adopted by this political Proteus, whom we have witnessed at one time grossly insulting and at another time servilely flattering his sovereign; a man of whom the late Earl of Chatham observed in the House of Commons, that he "did not deserve to be ranked among the human species, he was the blasphemer of his God, and the libeller of his King."— Respecting general warrants, however, a subject which is so closely connected with the name of Wilkes, the author is decidedly of opinion that the ministry had recourse to an expedient which was in itself unconstitutional and illegal, and only sanctioned by previous usage.

On the great question of taxing America, a question in which more important consequences have been involved than probably ever before originated in a single cause, Mr. Adolphus expresses his conviction that this right existed in the British Senate. After having given a view of the state of America at this period, he says:

> 'Such were the people whom Mr. Grenville proposed to subject to taxation, for the purpose of easing the burthens of England. In the first view of this project, it is only necessary to examine its general expediency or impropriety, leaving the various measures originating from it, to be discussed in the periods which produced them.
>
> 'The participation which America claimed and enjoyed in the benefits of the Revolution, rendered it merely reasonable that the colonies should contribute towards the discharge of a debt, incurred in support of the government which was to them the source of liberty and prosperity. The last war was undertaken principally on account of America, and a great part of the debt contracted in the preceding war, had originated in the defence of that country. The practice of imposing taxes by authority of Parliament on the Transatlantic dominions was not new; it had been used ever since their establishment; not to an extent sufficient to afford great advantage to the country, yet abundantly sufficient, so far as precedent can be required, to support the right of the mother-country to draw pecuniary relief from her dependencies. The principle at the period of passing the resolutions in parliament was not deemed open to an objection; and it was considered necessary. as well as just, to realize the advantages which had been promised from the colonization and protection of that distant continent.
>
> 'In opposition to the rights of Great Britain, thus supported by precedent and every known principle of colonization, certain abstract propositions were assumed, and descanted on with a violence adapted to a cause already secure of partizans, and requiring only a plausible vindication. Among these were the axioms, that in every free state every man is his own legislator; that all taxes are free gifts for public services; and that no one community can have any power over the property or legislation of another community, that is not incorporated with it by a just and adequete representation. Without discussing the abstract truth of these positions, as applied to the independent states, it must be obvious that, with respect to colonies, they can never be founded on general principle, but merely on peculiar and adventitious circumstances. No man can be rash enough to assert, that when the first British emigrants established themselves in Virginia; when their diminutive colony of a hundred, reduced by sickness and the climate to one half of that number, hung with all the weakness and all the solicitude of infancy on the protecting support
> parent land; that then these fifty individuals, stationed in a
> and occupied chiefly in the pursuit of food, were defrauded

of their privileges as British subjects, because no provision was made for their representation in the national councils. When afterwards by numerous emigrations, the colonists had acquired a more respectable establishment; when their charters had given permanence to their possessions, and the force and wisdom of the mother-country were liberally exerted in favouring their prosperity; when, as a title to these benefits, they industriously procured the insertion of a clause in their charters, importing that they were still to be considered as Englishmen; and when, in return for such protection, they submitted to those impositions which, though not profitable to Great Britain, fully established the principle of taxation by parliament; at these periods no one can assert that their rights were invaded, or not duly consulted. But when the mother country, exhausted by a protracted war, looked to its wealthy and flourishing colonies for relief; then these pleas were advanced, which never were, which never could have been before resorted to, and which now could only be justified by the populousness and strength which America had derived from the protection of Great Britain. The same arguments, if true in the abstract, would equally apply to the Isle of Man, to Nevis, or the most diminutive of the colonies; if the application depended merely on force, they would either suppress the spirit of colonization, or indicate so clearly the only means of securing subjection, that it would become a rule of policy to abandon colonists to their fate, with unsolicitous apathy, or to prevent their future independency by damming up the sources of prosperity.

'Such principles had never regulated the practice of the British Government; and the ministry, who thought of imposing a tax on America, could not be expected to foresee the effects which afterwards resulted from the attempt. Crown lawyers could only reason from the usage and experience of past ages; the cabinet had no other guide: no warning voice raised itself in the house of commons; but the measure was suffered to pass through in silence, as one of those plans of external regulation, which proceeded rather from the executive than the deliberative power, and where concurrence is given without stedfast examination.

'Whatever cogency may now be ascribed to deductions drawn from isolated propositions, in a case where success is resorted to as the most convincing argument, the right of taxing America seemed at this period so incontestible, that any person who had insinuated the possibility of opposition before the measures were actually adopted, would have been derided as the wildest of speculists. Whether the ministry acted wisely, under all the circumstances of the times, in their attempt to tax the colonies, will be better gathered from the subsequent narrative, and the observations to which it gives rise, than from an accumulation of objections and replies.'

This account has the appearance of being argumentative and dispassionate: but it omits the main point for which the Americans contended. They were willing to *contribute* to the wants of the parent state, but they objected to the *mode* in which that contribution was to be raised and enforced; and which left them no power of objecting to the imposition of burthens which might be irksome and prejudicial, and no choice of placing them where they might be borne without disgust and without detriment.

As the author's remarks on the regulations against smuggling are moderate and judicious, and as they are intimately connected with the subject of our differences with America, we should have extracted them if we could have made room. Of Dr. Franklin, he thus speaks:

> 'It was resolved to send Dr. Franklin to England, as agent for America, to exert his talents and influence in defeating the measures complained of. This choice of an agent had great effect on the subsequent transactions of the colonies. Franklin, bred to the trade of a printer, and at an early period of life obliged to rely on himself alone for subsistence and advancement, was rendered cautious, attentive, and circumspect: though his efforts had been rewarded by a competent fortune and the postmastership of America, he did not resign himself to indolence, but still pursued the employments of his younger years with unabated perseverance. An affectionate attachment to literature and natural philosophy, acting upon a bold and ardent genius, rendered him daring and adventurous; but left him all that minute attention and patient calmness, which combine trifling accidents, and little causes, in the promotion and perfection of the greatest designs. His eloquence was simple, but nervous and commanding, and both in speaking and writing abounded with those brief apophthegms, which make a forcible impression on the mind, subjugate the judgment, and are never eradicated from the memory. The projects of Franklin, which in another would have seemed exaggerated and preposterous, were by him so well planned and so industriously pursued, that they never failed to produce the most extensive, and, to all but himself, unexpected results. His fortune, his knowledge, and his great work the American revolution, are convincing and incontrovertible proofs of the immense labours which may be atchieved by the union of genius, judgment, and perseverance.'

It would not be uninteresting to contrast these sentiments in regard to America, with those of Mr. Belsham on the same subject, which we presented to the reader in our 17th volume, N. S. p. 121, &c.—Mr. Adolphus's narrative of transactions in India is perspicuous, and appears to be faithful; and his account of the application made by the Dissenters in the year 1772 for a repeal of the Test Laws, when the bill passed the Lower House, but was thrown out by the Lords, is fair and unprejudiced.—In the appendix to the first volume, are introduced several curious letters between the Earl of Bute and Mr. Dodington (afterward Lord Melcombe), on the resignation of Mr. Pitt in the year 1761. In this correspondence, we meet with the following strong passage, in a letter from Dodington: "I sincerely wish your Lordship joy of being delivered of a most impracticable colleague, his Majesty of a most imperious servant, and the country of a most dangerous minister. I am told that the people are sullen about it." Such was Lord Melcombe's opinion of Mr. Pitt at that time.—A letter to that nobleman from Lord Bute, in answer to one of reproach on the refusal of a request, contains these words:

> 'In short, my lord, though I cannot prevent umbrage being taken at my not satisfying every wish, I shall certainly hinder any reasonable ground of complaint concerning things I have once promised. I own, and without blushing, I have been very unfortunate in the means I have for years taken, of cementing friendships and procuring attachments. Others with much less trouble, perhaps without my sincerity, succeed better; but I repine not; conscious of my own feelings, conscious of deserving better treatment, I shall go on, though single and alone, to serve my king and country in the best manner my poor talents will allow me; happy, too happy, when the heavy burden that I bear shall be removed, and placed on other shoulders.'

The whole detail of the transactions in America, and the account of the disgraceful riots in the year 1780, are correctly and impartially given. The author terminates his view of the events of Lord North's administration with the following short character of that Nobleman:

> 'Such was the close of the first permanent administration formed during the reign of George III. From the prime minister the acts of government took their character, and in speaking of him, his most inveterate opponents never accused his warmest friends of exaggeration. Of his character and attainments when he was raised to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, mention has already been made, and what remains for history to record has been in a great degree anticipated. His eloquence was less distinguished by peculiar splendour of diction, than by suavity, perspicuity, and arrangement. The impression of his harangues was aided by an extraordinary degree of candour, and ingenuous confidence, which were known to be unassumed, and convinced the hearers of the purity of his motives, even though they did not assent to the propriety of his measures. His temper was seldom ruffled, and though reiterated attacks sometimes extorted a sarcastic sally, his wit, of which he possessed an uncommon fecundity, never left on the minds, even of those whom he overwhelmed with ridicule, a sentiment of rancour. His honour was unblemished, his integrity unquestionable and "in a long and stormy, and, at length, an unfortunate administration, he had many political opponents, almost without a personal enemy." These estimable qualities were supposed to be counterbalanced by too great a facility in adopting the suggestions of others; and the absence of that strictness or severity which is often necessary to enforce and insure exertion, gave the appearance of procrastination, and a want of energy seemed to pervade the other departments of administration.'

We shall conclude our extracts with an interesting anecdote, which the author gives on the authority of 'private information:'

'Every advantage might be expected from the national honour, and from the personal character of the sovereign, whose love of peace could only be suspended by the pursuit of honour and of justice. When he had reluctantly adopted the resolution, which proved the means of ending the war, it became a part of his system; and the same upright firmness of mind, which made him unwilling to receive terms of peace, attended with a dismemberment of his hereditary dominions, rendered him strenuous in adhering to them, when imposed by necessity, and the voice of his people. His majesty's views on this subject were clearly and nobly explained, when Mr. Adams, as envoy from the United States of America, obtained his first audience. The king declared, he anticipated the interview as the most critical moment of his life, but he received the new minister with gracious affability. "I was the last man in the kingdom, Sir," he said, "to consent to the independence of America; but now it is granted, I shall be the last man in the world to sanction a violation of it." This noble and dignified sentiment, joined with the general deportment of the king, formed such a refutation of the calumnies against him, by which revolt had been rendered popular, that Mr. Adams retired agitated and affected in the highest degree; he expressed, before he quitted the palace, his sense of the king's gracious demeanour, and always retained a strong attachment to his person and character.'

Our readers will perceive that these volumes are composed in a spirit of candour and moderation; that they are written with perspicuity, though not highly distinguished by an animated and elegant style; and that the author appears to have taken considerable and successful pains in collecting his materials. The work is ornamented with well-engraved portraits of his Majesty, Lord Bute, the Right Honourable Charles Townshend, the Right Honourable George Grenville, Lord North, and the Marquis of Rockingham.

ART. IV. *Mr.* Campbell's *Journey from Edinburgh through Parts of North Britain.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 202. *of the last Review.*]

HAVING already accompanied this writer in some of the most romantic and picturesque parts of his tour, we shall now attend him through the remainder of it to the Scotish metropolis; with a long and desultory account of which city, he concludes his work. We have before intimated to the reader, and our extracts must have confirmed our report, that he must not expect to find much original matter in these

volumes.

olumes. Mr. Campbell, indeed, copies from every quarter; nd if he does not always select with perfect judgment, he forces riters of almost every description to pay contribution with no paring hand. The narrators of ecclesiastical and civil affairs, uthors of statistical accounts, writers on the subjects of painting and music, biographers and dictionary-compilers, &c. &c. re all pressed into his service, and are with some ingenuity made to contribute to his advantage.

In proceeding from Callander, the author introduces us to the grand and sublime scenery of the Pass of Leney, the wilds Benlaurs, Taymouth, Glenlion, Ranoch, and the adjacent untry; and we follow him with pleasure to Blair Athol and nkeld. We shall not detain our readers, however, with any count of these places, beautiful and interesting as they are, ause they have recently been made acquainted with their racteristic features by other tourists.—In this part of the rk, Mr. Campbell contrasts the present with the antient racter of the Highlander; and if he discovers no great tas in the comparison, he certainly betrays some of that cibility of temper for which the inhabitants of this portion our island have immemorially been represented as remark-le. The terms in which he speaks of Mr. Pinkerton, with ose opinions on this topic he does not agree, are as inapable to that gentleman, as they are unfit to be used by any ary man; from whom delicacy of expression, as well as sentiment, may with propriety be expected.

From Dunkeld, we pass through Perth, Dundee, and St. drew's, to Edinburgh, and are detained on our journey by account of the conspiracy of Gowrie, the Raid of Ruthven, a slight draft of the ecclesiastical history of the Archiepispal see of St. Andrew's; in which are detailed the assassition of Cardinal Beaton, and that of Archbishop Sharp, whose ath was accompanied with circumstances of peculiar horror. one of the mystery attached to the Gowrie conspiracy is moved by the present writer; who contents himself with nscribing from the historians of that period, and with aiming unmerited sneer at Mr. Pinkerton for the dissertation on is curious subject annexed to Mr. Laing's history of Scotland; which a plausible theory is suggested to elucidate this very traordinary affair *.

Our progress is still farther delayed, first at Kirkaldy by a graphical sketch of Dr. Adam Smith, chiefly copied from fessor Stewart's account of that eminent man; and then at

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* For an account of this dark transaction, see M. R. vol. xxxv. S. p. 276. and vol. xxxvi. p. 125.

Queen's Ferry with a biographical outline of John Law of Lawriston, Comptroller General of the Finances of France, in which nothing new in relation to that remarkable character is discoverable. At length, however, and after many interruptions, (several of which appeared to us unnecessary,) we are suffered to arrive at Edinburgh; where we are sometimes entertained with accounts which are curious, and not unfrequently fatigued with narratives that are uninteresting and dull. The author appears to be absolutely overwhelmed with the variety of materials which press on him for insertion; and it must be allowed that many of the articles, which he has admitted, have conduced more to the size than to th value of his publication.—From this heterogeneous mass, we shall attempt to select those portions which promise to amus by their novelty, or furnish useful information by their authen ticity. With this view, we shall present to our readers th principal part of Mr. Campbell's history of the Scotish stage, a drawn from various authors:

'It is well known, that theatrical entertainments called *Interlu* were common in Scotland so early as the minority of James V.

'Nay, prior to this period, some traces of dramatic exhibitio as mentioned by writers of authority, are discoverable in Scotlan In the year 1593, when James IV. married Margaret of Englan one John Inglish and his company performed at the nuptials of th royal pair; and in 1538, when Mary of Lorraine came to Scotla to espouse our fifth James, "there were at Edinburgh gre triumphs, farces, and plays, made unto the Queen's grace."

'The celebrated Scotish poet Sir David Lindsay (the friend a companion of James V.) wrote several dramatic pieces in his vern cular dialect, which were acted at the play-fields of Coupar (i Fife) and of Edinburgh in the open air, "*when weather serv*" But these dramas, consisting chiefly of a strange mixture of ob nity and satire, gave great offence to the monks and friars, as it e posed somewhat grossly their scandalous lives. Of consequence, s barefaced an attack was roughly repelled, and eventually crushed for, in the month of March 1558-9, a council of the clergy, h in the Blackfriars church, Edinburgh, ordained, that Sir Da Lindsay's book containing his poems and plays should be burnt b the hands of the common executioner.

'It appears, however, that soon after the reformed religion o tained in Scotland, dramatic exhibitions revived. On the 17th January 1568, "a play made by Robert Semple"[a] was enacted Edinburgh, before the regent Murray and several of the Scoti nobility. In the year 1592 a company of players from England w licensed by James VI. to perform within Edinburgh, which gave gre offence to the clergy. An act of *Kirk-session*, prohibiting peop from resorting to places of profane amusement, on pain of chur censure, was, in November 1599, annulled by an ordinance of ro authority; dramatic exhibitions therefore went on as formerly.

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'In the year 1603, *Philotus*, a comedy, was printed at Edinburgh; there is reason to believe it to have been the production of Robert Semple which was exhibited before the regent Murray, as mentioned above. In the same year also was published *Darius*, a tragedy, and in the year following three other tragedies, written by Sir William Alexander of Minstrie, afterwards Earl of Stirling.

'During the national commotions in the reign of Charles I, and the civil wars of Cromwell's usurpation, no traces of theatrical exhibitions are to be found north of the Tweed. Soon after the Restoration, however, when the earl of Rothes was high commissioner of Scotland, on the festival of St. John, a play called "Marciano, or the Discovery," by Sir *Thomas Sydserff*, was acted before his grace and his court at Holyrood-house. While the duke of York (afterward James II.) resided at the palace of Holyrood-house, in the years 1679, 80, and 81, a company of comedians attended his royal highness, and performed privately in the Tennis-hall before him and his suite.'—

During the revolution in England and the subsequent rebellions in Scotland, the progress of theatrical entertainments yielded to the more turbulent stream of politics. and little is to be recorded respecting the Scotish stage during this period. The clergy had again opposed with success, in the year 1727, an attempt to restore the 'temples consecrated to the father of lies;' and in 1737, an act was passed, prohibiting stage plays in Scotland. As a taste for literature, however, began to prevail, and as civil commotions subsided, the sons of Thespis again made head against their pious opponents; and in the year 1746, a small theatre was erected in a back area near St. John's Cross, Canongate:

'But the Scotish stage had ever to encounter unpropitious circumstances and untoward events. The Canongate theatre was built partly by private subscription and partly on credit. About the year 1752, Mr. Lee, an actor of that period eminently qualified for conducting theatrical concerns, purchased from the original proprietors the little theatre, Canongate, for 648l. and 100l. per annum during the lives of the lessees. Notwithstanding Lee's abilities both as an actor and manager, his affairs rendered it prudent for certain members of the College of Justice, as well as other persons of property who were bondsmen for him, to have the whole property of the theatre vested in themselves. Accordingly, Lee having failed to make good his engagements, the gentlemen of the long robe knew how to take care of their own interests: the manager was dismissed, and the senators of the College of Justice appointed James Callender, a merchant of Edinburgh, as their agent for conducting the business of the stage.

'About this time a man of a prepossessing figure and address made his appearance on the Edinburgh boards, namely, DIGGES, well known in Dublin as an accomplished actor. Him it was who, at Callender's invitation, came to Edinburgh as acting-manager

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when this new arrangement had taken place. Under Digges's manangement, things, for a time, went on smoothly; but his style of living, little consonant to that of a *sturdy beggar*, involved him in pecuniary embarrassments, and forced him to quit Edinburgh rather hastily. Still, however, Mr. Callender continued to act for those concerned in the property of the theatre; and, in conjunction with Mr. Love, a performer of respectability, carried on for some time the management of the Edinburgh stage. At length, tired of the teasing and vexatious business of a theatre, Mr. Callender relinquished his connection with Love; on which occasion David Beat, another citizen of Edinburgh, joined Love, and they exerted themselves to please the town. To Love succeeded John Dawson, of Newcastle.

'Beat and Dawson gave little satisfaction to the public in their mode of management; an instance of which is recorded, little to the credit of either the managers, their company of comedians, or the public, to whom no small portion of blame must attach. "Dissentions arose among the performers, which the managers were unable to allay. Each party had their friends among the public. The gentlemen of the long robe took a deep concern in the quarrel. The students in the university did not remain neutral. In a riot which ensued, the Canongate theatre was totally demolished; and the performers, who had drawn this ruin on themselves, were left in extreme necessity." [Arnot's Hist. of Edinburgh.]

'This disaster proved no less ruinous to the managers and performers than to the proprietors, who found themselves involved in a pecuniary embarrassment, with little hope of being extricated from it with safety and success. An action of damages was brought before the Court of Session against those who were concerned in the riot: this the rioters artfully warded off, by a counter-action against the plaintiffs, founded on their having been concerned in theatrical matters in open defiance of an act of the legislature. "The ludicrousness of the case was perceived, (observes the author above quoted,) and both actions were dropped."

'The theatre was once more fitted up, and from time to time performers of eminence found their account in visiting the Scotish capital. An Edinburgh audience, at the period when the tragedy of DOUGLAS was brought on the stage, had as critics to guide the public taste, a Robertson, a Blair, a Webster, a Carlisle, among the clergy; a Dalrymple, a Burnet, a Home, among the lawyers; besides many among the general mass eminently qualified to take the lead in matters of taste as well as judgment. Hence, the Edinburgh stage was deservedly considered a genial hot-bed for theatrical scions of hopeful promise: and it still retains the same warmth for performers of rising merit, an affectionate indulgence, bordering, it is feared, on good nature, but too often abused by the artful intrigues or parsimonious manœuvres of cunning or niggardly managers.'—

'So far had public opinion altered in favour of stage performances, that in the year 1768 a new playhouse, since dignified by the title of "THEATRE ROYAL," was begun and was opened in December

1769.

1769, under the management of Mr. David Ross, of Covent Garden theatre. This gentleman, having become patentee (by purchase) under the sanction of law, for a short time continued his labour; but with such ill success as greatly to damp the ardour with which he encountered the difficulties of theatrical business. An unforeseen accident too taking place, before the house was completed, considerably lessened his expectations as to the profits of the ensuing season. This accident was no other than the downfall of the North-bridge; by which the direct communication from the city to the theatre was cut off. Moreover, the enemies of stage performances saw the hand of Providence manifest in thus graciously permitting the broad way to the temple of Satan to be suddenly laid in ruins. Happily but few lives were lost when the bridge fell; which circumstance greatly added, in the minds of the pious disciples of Whitfield, (from whose preaching a vast concourse of people had, but a few minutes before the dreadful crash took place, retired to their own homes, most of whom passed by way of the bridge,) to the miraculous interposition of Heaven. Nevertheless, the bridge being rebuilt, and the theatre opened, such is the perverseness of human nature, that even some of the godly themselves were seen to enter the house of the *arch-scorner*; where the sons and daughters of the land partook of entertainments prepared by profane authors, and exhibited by "*vagrants, common-players, vagabonds, and sturdy-beggars.*"

' Ross, having failed in his expectations the first season, let the theatre to FOOTE, who brought down such a company the second opening of the house as insured success; a proof of which is, that Foote, after paying the rent and all contingencies, cleared upwards of a thousand pounds, with which he returned to London, leaving, for a pecuniary consideration, the amount of which is not known, the management and profits arising therefrom in the hands of Messrs. Digges and Bland. Mr. Bland (the uncle of the celebrated Mrs. Jordan, formerly the partner of Ross,) a steady, upright character, continued to manage in conjunction with Digges; and, having obtained from Ross a renewal of their lease, they went on with various success, till Digges was once more obliged to quit Edinburgh, for reasons best known to himself and his creditors.

' Mr. Bland continued as treasurer to the theatre, and acting-manager occasionally, while Signior Dominicio Corri (now music-seller in the Haymarket) and Mr. Wilkinson of York successively held the current lease; till, in the November 1781, Mr. John Jackson purchased the theatre, wardrobe, scenery, &c. from the late patentee Mr. David Ross. Mr. Jackson had the management of the Edinburgh theatre for ten years. To him succeeded Mr. Stephen Kemble; under whose directions it remained till November 1800; when being once more taken by Mr. Jackson, in conjunction with Mr. Aikin of Liverpool, the theatrical entertainments of the Scotish capital were resumed.'

As Edinburgh has been for so many years justly celebrated for its medical school, the following short account of its institution will probably be acceptable:

'Before the commencement of the eighteenth century, every thing connected with the healing art in the Scotish capital was wretched in the extreme. Barbers and surgeons were one and the same profession, who exclusively practised as a craft the dressing of wounds, shaving of beards, and making and selling of whisky, throughout the *gude* town: at the same time, empirics, natives and foreigners, male and female, ignorant and illiterate, gave advice and prescribed medicine; while what were called the regular practitioners, without knowledge or experience, administered to their patients as chance or whim directed.

'To illustrate this by an appeal to history, we find that, when the surgeons of Edinburgh were, by *Seal of Cause* of the Town-Council in 1505, incorporated under the denominations of *Surgeons and Barbers*, and afterwards by royal charter of confirmation anno 1506, it was required of them to be able to *read and write!* to 'knaw anatomie, nature and complexioun of everie member of humanis bodie; and lykwayes to knaw all the vaynes of the samyn, that he may mak flewlothomea in dew tyme;' together with a perfect knowlege of shaving beards: these were all the qualifications that seemed necessary to the art of surgery at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The practice of physic was, if possible, in a more deplorable state. It should seem, however, that, toward the latter part of the seventeenth century, the profession of physic was in more reputable hands than it had been. In the charter of erection of the present Royal College of Physicians, dated the 29th of November 1681, confirmed by parliament on the 16th of June 1685, the name of the celebrated *Pitcairne* is mentioned, which furnishes one proof of the truth of the preceding remark. The father-in-law of Dr. Pitcairne, Sir Archibald Stevenson, was a physician of eminence then in practice at Edinburgh; and the ingenious Sir Robert Sibbald, the impugnator of Pitcairne's doctrines, was likewise a member of the Royal College of Physicians. Hence it is observable, that towards the close of the seventeenth century something like the beginnings of a medical school appeared in the Scotish capital.

'Pitcairne, who had himself studied at Paris, returned to his native country well skilled in his art as it was then practised on the continent. In 1692 he was called to fill the chair as professor of Medicine in the University of Leyden, where the celebrated *Boerhaave* became his pupil. His stay in Leyden, however, was of but short duration, as in 1693 he returned to Edinburgh, married, and settled, practising as a physician. It does not appear that he gave lectures publicly on any branch of medicine: but he wrote in vindication of the great discovery then recently made by the immortal *Harvey* respecting the true circulation of the blood: which admirable discovery, with justice ascribed to the English philosopher, forms so memorable an era in the history of medicine. The practice of surgery had emerged from that chaos of doubt and error in which, previous to Harvey's discoveries, it had been involved: and Pitcairne himself, who had been invited by the College of Surgeons in Edinburgh to become a member, deemed it an honour, and took his seat among them. This illustrious physician ceased to adorn his profession and enliven society on the 20th day of October 1713; at which period the surgeon-apothecaries had among them a few promising young men, some of whom laid the foundation of the Edinburgh School of Medicine, which is now one of the most distinguished in Europe. Still, however, from that prejudice against violating their remains so naturally associated in the mind with our lively regret for the dead departed, few opportunities were afforded by dissections of studying the anatomy of the human body; and although two apothecary-surgeons, namely Mr. John M'Gill and Mr. Adam Drummond, had the title of joint Professors of Anatomy to the Surgeons' Company, yet dissections (being usually performed on subjects which had suffered death as criminals, and were only permitted for this purpose) occurring but seldom, afforded but little gratification or instruction to the young student.

'*John Monro*, the youngest son of Sir Alexander Monro, of Bearcroft in Stirlingshire, was educated as a surgeon apothecary at Edinburgh; and having served in King William's army in Flanders as a surgeon, he quitted it three years after his son Alexander, his only child, was born, and returned to Edinburgh, where he remained in extensive practice during the remainder of a useful life. Monro the elder, observing the inclination of the future father of the anatomical department of the Edinburgh School of Medicine, promoted by every means possible the bent of his son's studies. He sent him to London, Paris, and Leyden, to improve himself; and the reward of his paternal solicitude and fond wishes was, the return of an accomplished and enlightened youth of such hopeful promise as gained him the regard of the faculty, many of whom eagerly desired he might open a class for anatomical demonstration. Accordingly, young Monro was prevailed on to commence, privately, a course of anatomy; on delivering the first lecture of which he found himself in the midst, not of a few raw students, but of the whole company of surgeons and apothecaries, together with the fellows of the College of Physicians, having the president at their head. For a moment the youthful demonstrator felt the glow of modest diffidence: the words of his intended discourse seemed to have entirely escaped his recollection; his notes were left at home; and in this dilemma he had recourse to that presence of mind which subsequently distinguished this singular genius. He began to shew the preparations which lay before him: the signs for the things signified arranging themselves in his mind, utterance soon followed; and this experiment answering the purpose so completely, he ever after accustomed himself to extemporaneous delivery. Those who remember his ready, clear, logical, pithy manner of demonstration, speak in high terms of him as a lecturer.

'Our young anatomist having succeeded in his first attempts so much to the satisfaction of every one, the next aim of his father was, to realize a plan which he had formed in his own mind respecting a medical school in the university, to be established on a regular, permanent, and respectable footing; a thing heretofore but imperfectly conducted, and ill-directed*. About the year 1720, the father communicated his ideas on this subject to his brethren of the faculty, who, warmly interesting themselves in behalf of the son, prevailed with the Town-Council to appoint *Alexander Monro*, a name ever to be revered, professor of anatomy in the university of Edinburgh. Dr. Alston, who, prior to this period, had been appointed the professor of materia medica and botany, was induced, from the example of so able a colleague, to give a regular course of lectures in his department; and, in the beginning of the winter 1720, Monro opened a class for initiating students in anatomy, physiology, and surgery. Thus we have seen a medical school, from a very humble origin, rise into consequence, and continue to advance daily, by energetic means wisely adapted to render its institution a benefit to the whole world.

'Soon after Monro and Alston began to teach regularly, other branches of medical science were filled with able professors. Dr. Sinclair delivered lectures on the theory of medicine; Dr. Rutherford, on the practice; Dr. Plumber, on chemistry; Dr. Alston, on materia medica and botany; and Dr. Monro, on anatomy; &c. About this time the Medical Society of Edinburgh was instituted; and near the same period the Royal Infirmary was opened for the reception of patients. The medical school being thus fully established, and the several departments supplied with able professors, they and their successors in office contributed, and still continue to contribute largely, toward the accumulated body of medical science, so powerful in its progress at the commencement of the nineteenth century. It is worthy of remark, and it may not be uninteresting to know, that several of the chairs of the medical departments have been filled with the descendants of the founders of our school of medicine and their immediate successors; among these is the present Dr. Alexander Monro senior, who succeeded his father in the year 1760, and who, like his venerable father, after forty years' labours in the anatomical theatre, relinquished the severer duty in favour of his eldest son Dr. Alexander Monro junior, now joint professor of anatomy, physic, and surgery, in the university of Edinburgh †.

'What greatly contributed to raise and establish the fame of the medical school of Edinburgh was, the chairs being filled by some of the greatest improvers of the healing art in modern times; among whom may be mentioned Cullen, Black, and Gregory; names that will remain as immortal as the science itself, which they laboured to free from that mass of unintelligible matter under which it lay buried for ages.'

'* Before the year 1720, there was no public teacher of physic in the university of Edinburgh, except, indeed, that in winter Dr. Crawford gave a superficial course of chemistry, and in summer Dr. Preston gave a slight sketch of botanical lectures on a few officinal plants.'

'† No less than [illegible] of our present professors in the medical departments ha[illegible] to chairs in which their fathers flourished, viz. Drs. Gr[illegible] Home, Rutherford, and Monro.'

With the account of the progress and present state of the fine arts of painting and engraving at Edinburgh, though not distinguished by much new information, we were pleased, because it displayed a judicious use of old materials; and the description of Roslin Castle, with that of Hawthornden, the seat of the Poet Drummond, appeared to us to be accurate and interesting.

In delivering our unbiassed sentiments concerning this publication, we have been obliged to speak less favourably of it in some respects than its partial author would probably have anticipated: but the same regard to justice induces us to remind the reader that, notwithstanding the objections which we have pointed out, these volumes may be truly said to afford a considerable share of entertainment and information.

The engravings which embellish this work, (44 in number,) and which are all made from drawings by the author, are in general eminently beautiful, and reflect great credit on the taste and genius of the artists.

Art. V. *Transactions of the Linnean Society,* Vol. VI. 4to. pp. 400. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1802.

The growing merit and importance of these volumes would frequently invite us to trains of curious investigation, did not the plan of our work necessarily preclude minute discussions of detached memoirs. To avoid repetition, we have also to observe that scientific catalogues and descriptions, illustrated by plates, are not susceptible of abridgment or intelligible analysis; and hence, in these cases, we can do little more than briefly indicate the nature of the several papers.

The first article in the present volume is intitled

'A Dissertation on two Natural Genera hitherto confounded under the Name of Mantis. By Anthony Augustus Henry Lichtenstein, D.D. F.M.L.S. Translated from the German by Thomas Young, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S.'

In the course of this essay, which manifests much diligence of research, the author presents us with the distinctive characters of *mantis* and *phasma*, an enlarged description of neglected species appertaining to either genus, and a short enumeration of others, whose rank in the classification must remain doubtful, till ascertained by more accurate examination. Particular attention is bestowed on the adjustment of the synonyms; and plates are annexed, representing *mantis filum, phasma filiforme, —bacticum,* and*—Ohrtmanni.*

'The Botanical History of the Genus Ehrharta. By Olof Swartz, M.D. F.M.L.S.'

This is the most complete account which we have perused of the genus in question, not fewer than nine sorts being specifically defined. As *mnematea* and *bulbosa* have both bulbous roots, the latter epithet should no longer be retained in the nomenclature. These two species, however, possess so many differential characters, that we are surprised that Lamarck should have confounded them.

'Account of a Microscopical Investigation of several Species of Pollen, with Remarks and Questions on the Structure and Use of that Part of Vegetables. By Luke Howard, Esq. of Plaistow in Essex.'

The plants of which the pollen was subjected to experiment were *corylus avellana*, *erica carnea*, *reseda odorata*, *cactus flagelliformis*, and *carex acuta*.—Has the author overlooked the extreme irritability of the greenish powder of *equisetum arvense?*

Though a few experiments, and those incident to fallacy, can never warrant general conclusions, we trust that some zealous and accurate observers will prosecute the curious inquiries suggested by Mr. Howard. The rapid evolutions of the organic particles of pollen in alcohol, their more sluggish motions in the liquor of the pistil and a solution of sugar, the distention of their absorbent vessels in water, and their identity with fæculum or starch, if once completely established, may serve to unfold part, at least, of the mystery of vegetable reproduction.

'Observations on Aphides, chiefly intended to show that they are the principal Cause of Blights in Plants, and the sole Cause of the Honey-Dew. By the late Mr. William Curtis, F.L.S.'

According to Mr. Curtis, the aphides subsist entirely on vegetable food, and greatly multiply in consequence of a mild winter, but are usually kept in check by *coccinella ichneumon aphidum*, and *musca aphidivora*, their declared enemies.—In the year 1793 they were the chief, and in 1798 the sole cause of the failure of hops.—They are capable of resisting immersion in water for hours together, but quickly perish in the smoke of tobacco. They part with an excrementitious saccharine matter, which, when collected into quantities, forms the *honey-dew*, and gives plants the sooty appearance commonly called *blight*.—The latter assertion, however, is not so clearly established as the former; and both should be received with due regard to the vague import of popular terms. *Honey-dew*, for example, is also applied to natural exudations; and diseased symptoms, known by the name of *blight*, may be induced, as we formerly hinted *, by sudden changes in the state of the atmosphere.

‘ Remarks on the Genera of Pæderota, Wulfenia, and Hemimeris. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.’

A short but distinct correction of some blunders in nomenclature.

‘ An Illustration of the Genus Solandra. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. and L.S.’

The principal merit of this article consists in a scientific description of *solandra glandiflora*; with a suitable plate.

‘ Observations on some remarkable Strata of Flint in a Chalk-pit in the Isle of Wight, in a Letter from Sir Henry Charles Englefield, Bart. F.R.S. to John Latham, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S.’

The bruised and shattered appearance of the flints included in the chalk is thus explained:

> ‘ There can be very little doubt that the strata, though now so inclined, were originally formed in a horizontal position. When the tremendous convulsion took place which sunk them to the situation in which they now appear (at which time the channel which separates the Isle of Wight from the main land was perhaps formed), the strata of chalk, in the act of subsidence, had a tendency to slide on each other, and this would be exerted most sensibly where from the admixture of the flints the cohesion of the parts of the chalk was the weakest. This motion, or rather strain, of so enormous a weight, might in an instant shiver the flints, though their resistance stopped the incipient motion; for the flints, though crushed to powder, are not displaced, which must have been the case had the beds slid sensibly.’

‘ Remarks on some British Species of Salix. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.’

A careful retrospect of the botanical history of *Salix* has more than once excited suspicion of the permanency of certain characters, which have been assumed as specific; and it has even suggested the idea that the whole family is subject to casual or hybridal varieties. We regard, however, the paper under notice as a precious pledge of *better things to come*, and look forwards with fond expectation to a distinct elucidation of our native willows, in the next volume of the *Flora Britannica*. Dr. Smith's present remarks are limited to the arborescent sorts of the first section of the genus, and comprehend very accurate descriptions of *Salix purpurea*,—*helix*.—*fissa*,—*rubra*,—*Croweana*,—*triandra*,—*amygdalina*,—*pentandra*,—*nigricans*,—*aurina*,—*petiolaris*,—and *phylicifolia*.

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* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxxviii. p. 373.

The consideration of *vitellina*, *fragilis*, and one or two ne species presented by the Rev. Mr. Abbot of Bedford, is pos poned, till farther information has been obtained concernir them.

'Descriptions of four new Species of Fucus. By Dawson Turne M.A. F.L.S.'

These species are denominated—*ruscifolius*,—*crenulatus*,—*clavellosus*, and—*Wiggbii*. Pertinent remarks and neat engr vings accompany the respective Latin descriptions.

'Description of Callicocca Ipecacuanha. By Felix Avella Brotero, Professor of Botany in the University of Coimbra F.M.L.S.'

As many confused and erroneous notions long prevailed wit respect to the nature and structure of this plant, the public ar under real obligations to Professor Brotero, for his minute an technical communication.

'Observations on the Curculio Trifolii, or Clover Weevil, a small Insect which infests the Heads of the cultivated Clover, and destroy the Seed. In a Letter to Thomas Marsham, Esq. Tr. L.S. by William Markwick, Esq. F.L.S. With additional Remarks by Mr. Marsham.'

'Further Observations on the Curculio Trifolii. In a Letter to William Markwick, Esq. F.L.S. by Martin Christian Gottlieb Lehmann, M.A. of Gottingen.'

These papers make us acquainted with the habits of a destructive insect, but prescribe no means of preventing its ravages. As the weevil tribes are extremely averse to disturbance, may they not be dislodged by frequent and smart agitations of the plants?

'Description of Brotera Persica and Mustelia Eupatoria, tw new Plants cultivated in the Botanic Garden of Halle, by Curt Sprengel, M.D. Professor of Botany in the University of Halle.'

The generic and specific characters are here exhibited, and exemplified by plates.

'Observations on the Hinges of British Bivalve Shells. By Mr William Wood, F.L.S.'

A valuable addition to our stock of British conchology, bu not reducible to an abstract.

'Catalogue of the more rare Plants found in the Environs o Dover, with occasional Remarks. By Mr. Lewis Weston Dillwyn F.L.S.'

Similar lists, prepared by skilful botanists, in their sever districts, would greatly contribute to advance their favouri science. The habitations of most of our rare plants migh

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thus be speedily ascertained, and the plants themselves visited, or procured without loss of time.

'Descriptions of some singular Coleopterous insects. By Charles Schreibers, M.D., Deputy Professor of Natural History in the University of Vienna.'

Full and elaborate Latin descriptions of *Lucanus æneus*, *Scarabæus proboscideus*, *dytiscoides*, *Cetonia Philipsii*, *Silpha lacrymosa*, *Clerus fasciculatus*, *Prionus lepidopterus*, *Cerambix Giraffa*, *Fichteliæ*, and *Scarites Schritteri*,—with a coloured engraving of each.

'Description of Menura superba, a Bird of New South Wales. By Major-General Thomas Davies, F.R.S. and L.S.'

General D. has successfully employed his pen and pencil in the delineation of this singular and beautiful bird, but has hitherto obtained no particular notices of its food and manners.

'On the Doryanthes, a new Genus of Plants from New Holland, next akin to the Agave. By Joseph Correa de Serra, LL.D. F.R.S. and L.S.'

This short account of *Doryanthes excelsa* will draw the attention of every lover of exotic botany. The characters which Dr. de Serra has recited are sufficient to discriminate it from *Agave*, in which the anthers are incumbent, and from *Fourcræa*, in which the filaments are winged.

'Observations on several Species of the Genus Apis, known by the Name of Humble-bees, and called Bombinatrices by Linnæus. By Mr. P. Huber, of Lausanne in Swisserland.'

This memoir, extending through 84 pages, and penned in French, with all the distinctness and gravity of a veteran observer, is well intitled to our notice on two accounts;—first, it is the production of a young man, in his 19th year, solicitous of aiding and illustrating a father's inquiries; and, secondly, it treats of a race of insects long condemned to neglect, because unprofitable to man, yet as wonderful in their works and ways as the kindred species which we rob at once of their stores and life.

Mr. H.'s systematic details of several kinds of humble-bees, observed near Lausanne, are prefaced by explanations of generic and individual characters; especially of marks distinctive of sex, and assumed from the size, sting, length of the feelers, number of rings, form of the fifth articulation of the hind legs, shape of the mandibles, and length of the trunk. The author also flatters himself that he has discovered a convenient family-character in the relative elongation of the head; and he asserts (rather Irishly) that the head of the common bee is more broad than long, or, at least, never longer than broad, as is uniformly the case with respect to the humble-bee.—Coloured representations of the originals greatly enhance the value of th specific and sexual descriptions, which are intended as pattern of characteristic delineations in this walk of entomology.

Without adverting to the facts already recorded by Reaumu and others, and without following our young naturalist throug a maze of interesting discussion relative to the nature of th wax, and the mode of adapting it to the construction of th cells, we may state our concurrence in his opinion that the wa is no preparation of the pollen of flowers, but results from honey previously swallowed, and subjected to peculiar elaborations within and without the body of the insect. The pollen is reserved for the nourishment of the brood in the maggo state.

In the course of his observations, Mr. H. has likewise ascertained that the female employs her sting in forwarding the extrusion of her eggs, and that she manifests no common share of activity and address in guarding the newly deposited eggs from the attacks of the working part of the family.—It appears, however, that these little animals, as well as statesmen and alarmists, can regulate their conduct by *existing circumstances*. When deprived of the wax requisite for securing the base of a tottering piece of cell-work, they actually contrived to prop it by their own muscular strength, and were observed to relieve one another from very fatiguing attitudes. A partial supply of wax enabled them to raise supports: but, as these gradually dried and gave way, the poor insects had again recourse to the same straining expedients. *I then took pity on them*, says the writer, *and fixed the comb to the table.*—On another occasion, we find them busied in converting coarse linen, which was accidentally placed within their reach, into a very nice covering for their lodging.

We must now, however, take leave of Mr. H. and his humming companions: but we shall be happy to pay them our respects as often as circumstances will permit.

'Botanical Characters of four New-Holland Plants, of the Natural Order of Myrti. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. & F.L.S.'

A paper supplementary to one on the same subject which was published in the third volume of the Society's Transactions. The present addition consists of *Leptospermum grandifolium*, *L. imbricatum*, *Melaleuca squarrosa*, and *Eucalyptus marginata*.

'Additional Observations on some remarkable Strata of Flint in Isle of Wight, in a Letter from Sir Henry Charles Englefield,

field, Bart. F.R.S. to John Latham, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S. of Romsey.'

Remarks chiefly topographical, in addition to article VII.

'Description of a new Species of Viola. By Thomas Furly Forster, Esq. F.L.S.'

This is the American *viola concolor*, which seldom flowers in our gardens.—Mr. F. intimates his intention of communicating to the public the result of a very sedulous study of the genus *viola*.

'Description of the Fruit of Cycas revoluta. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.'

The coloured engraving of this singular and splendid plant is taken from an excellent drawing by Miss North, daughter of the Bishop of Winchester. It is superfluous to add that the description is from the pen of a master.

'Species of Erica. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. and L.S.'

About 250 sorts of heath are here enumerated, and accurately defined. *E. vulgaris* is excluded from the list, on account of the peculiar structure of the valves of the pericarp. Mr. S. designs it *Calluna*.

The following short notices, composing the concluding article, will probably be acceptable to many of our readers.

'Extracts from the Minute Book of the Linnean Society.

'*April* 7, 1801.—An account was laid before the Society, from Dr. Macculloch, F.L.S. of an artifice used by the *Cancer Phalangium* to ensnare its prey. This contrivance consists in [illegible] itself up, as it were, in fragments of a *Fucus* [illegible] variety of Hudson's [illegible], which it seems [illegible] attach to the long hairs of its body and legs by means of [illegible] substance. It thus imitates a perfect [illegible] nately as to have deceived Dr. Macculloch.'

'*Oct.* 6.—L. W. Dillwyn, Esq. F.L.S. [illegible] having discovered the [illegible] hitherto noticed as British growing [illegible] pier at Ramsgate and other places [illegible] be rather common throughout the [illegible]

'*Dec.* 1.—A letter from Dr. Walter Wade [illegible] the President, mentions his having found [illegible] *Engl. Bot.* v. 11. t. 739, in Ireland. [illegible] in the Isle of Skye. Dr. Wade corrects [illegible] the edges of all the leaves, great [illegible] tainous district of Cunnamara [illegible] marked the number of angles [illegible] though more frequently [illegible] accorded with those given in L[illegible].

> ‘*Dec.* 15.—Information was given that the late Dr. Pult F.R.S. and L.S. had ordered his very valuable Museum of Na History to be presented to the Society, on condition of its preserved as a separate collection, in his name; and that he had bequeathed to the Society the sum of two hundred pounds stoc the three per cent. consolidated annuities.’

A continuation of the Lists of the Society's Library, a Contributors to it, terminates the volume.

Art. VI. *The Costume of Turkey*, illustrated by a Series of gravings; with Descriptions in English and French. Im 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Miller. 1802.

Truth of representation is a matter of the first import in all works which profess to convey instruction. artist who undertakes to give ideas of the dress and mar of a people, by delineations of the pencil, is as strictly requ to be faithful, as the historian or traveller who attempt describe with his pen. Indeed, inaccuracy in the former i excusable than in the latter, since the painter is required on copy fairly that which is before him. When accounts or tures of the inhabitants of foreign countries are exhib almost the first question generally proposed is, what is degree of credit to be attached to them? Hence it is of portance to afford the public some satisfaction on this hea which the editor of the volume before us has not been gether inattentive. *The Costume of China*, published in 1 and noticed in M. R. vol. xxxiii. p. 354, N. S., was give the authority of Major Mason, who had been a short tim China, and who assured the public that the plates were t from correct drawings made by Chinese artists. In 18 kind of continuation or supplement to that work was publi (see M. R. vol. xxxv. p. 24, N. S.) intitled *the Punish of China*: but the authority by which these exhibitions sanctioned was not particularly specified. This spl volume *on the Costume of Turkey* is introduced by a pre in which it is observed by the editor that

> ‘The work has the merit of being both interesting and val as to its objects: and that these objects are, to delineate with fi the various modes of dress and peculiarity of customs now ex among this singular nation and its various dependencies, and company such portraits with appropriate and accurate descrip With respect to the latter division, much is not to be expected the very narrow limits, to which it was necessary to confine th scriptive part of this work.’

Here we must remark that the descriptive part is not in general carried to the short length to which even the narrow limits of the plan confined it, and that in course there is much waste of beautiful paper, which might have been filled to advantage. The apology for the extreme brevity of some of the descriptions is scarcely admissible; 'It was impossible to enter more into detail without writing a volume instead of a page.' Where there was so much matter, a full page might easily have been furnished. We are informed, however, that the editor does not place the merit of the work in the explanations, but 'in the accuracy and beauty of the drawings, and the truth of the colouring; and that for other inquiries we must have recourse to the laborious and curious researches of D'Ohsson, D'Herbelot, Dallaway, Olivier, Tott, Montague, Tournefort, and various other writers: from which sources, and from the MS. notices of Monsr. Dalvimart, the present descriptions have been drawn up.' This M. Dalvimart is stated to be the original author of the designs here engraven: but no particular history of him is given, by which we might judge of the opportunities which he enjoyed for executing such a work to general satisfaction. We are only told that 'the drawings were made *on the spot*, about four years ago, by Monsieur Dalvimart, and may be depended on for their correctness.'

Such is the evidence: we could have wished that it had been more full and circumstantial; for, though we would not be supposed to doubt the honour of the editor and publisher, we may be allowed, as counsel for the public on these occasions, to remark that, when eight guineas are demanded for one volume in quarto, the most ample testimony ought to be afforded respecting the situation, character, and respectability of the author, or original delineator.

The volume consists of sixty beautifully coloured plates, on the following subjects.

1. The Kislar Aga, or first black Eunuch of the Seraglio.
2. A Sultana, or Odalisk.
3. Officers of the Grand Signior.
4. A Turkish woman in a provincial dress.
5. Ladle-Bearer to the Janissaries.
6. The Chief of the Ulemas.
7. A Musician.
8. A Domestic belonging to the Grand Vizier.
9. A Turk in his Chall or Shawl.
10. A Page of the Grand Signior.
11. First Dragoman, or Interpreter.
12. The Mufti, or Chief of Religion.
13. A Greek Woman of the Island of Marmora.
14. Turban-bearer to the Grand Signior.
15. A Jew.

16. A Turkish Woman of Constantinople.
17. A Hamal, or Common Porter.
18. A Subaltern Officer of the Janissaries.
19. A Woman of the Island of Andros.
20. A Saka, or Turkish Water-Carrier.
21. An Albanian.
22. A Female Egyptian Arab.
23. An Inhabitant of the Coast of Syria.
24. A Dervise.
25. A Turk in a Pelise.
26. A Bedouin Arab.
27. A Female Bedouin with her Child.
28. An Officer of the Janissaries.
29. A Female Dancer of Constantinople.
30. A Dervise of Syria.
31. A Tartar.
32. An Armenian.
33. A young Prince, heir to the Throne.
34. Two Janissaries in their dress of ceremony.
35. Capidji Bachi, private officer of the Grand Signior.
36. An Usher
37. A Female of the isle of Naxos.
38. Private Secretary to Grand Signior.
39. A Soldier.
40. Reis Effendi.
41. An Inhabitant of the isle Simia.
42. An inferior officer of the nissaries.
43. A Spahi, or Cavalry Soldi
44. A Member of the Divan.
45. Sword-Bearer to the Gra Signior.
46. A Dervise.
47. A Turkish Female of Pe
48. The Confectioner of t Palace.
49. The Chief Usher to t Grand Signior.
50. An Ichlogan, or Page.
51. A Tchocadar, or D mestic.
52. The Capitan Pacha.
53. An inhabitant of Bosnia.
54. A Sailor.
55. Stool Bearer to the Gra Signior.
55. An Attendant on the Hare of the Grand Signior.
57. A Turkish Lady in h wedding dress.
58. Bostandji Bachi.
59. The Grand Vizier.
60. A Sultana, or Kaddin.

In such a collection, all the figures cannot be expected t be equally interesting and pleasing. We have pictures of th dress of various officers belonging to the court of the Gran Signior, of the favourite Sultana, and even of that of the he to the throne; yet we have not, which is indeed a little su prizing, the costume of the most important figure of all, th of *the Grand Signior himself*.

The descriptions, as we have already hinted, are very shor and convey little original information. As specimens, we sha transcribe two or three.

' *Ladle-Bearer to the Janissaries*.—This singular character is person of greater consequence than his office, if we are to jud from European manners, would lead us to suspect. The sense honour is not, as with us, attached to the colours; they may lo th out much danger of disgrace; but the loss of their lad

ar

and kettle is almost irreparable, and they esteem it as their greatest calamity. In order to avoid this, every odah, or regiment, of which there are an hundred and one, has two of each. When both are taken by an enemy, they consider the regiment as destroyed, and a new one is formed, to whom new ladles and kettles are given. These ladles and kettles are never removed without receiving some military honours. When the ladle-bearer goes round, according to Mons. Dalvimart, to serve out the soup, or messes, he is always attended by a guard.'

Attached as our citizens are to good eating and drinking, they never thought of thus honouring the ladle and kettle; nor of carrying them in procession on Lord Mayor's day.—It is farther added that the Janissaries honour also their wooden spoons, and esteem them as much a part of their military dress as swords are regarded by English or French soldiers.

'*The Mufti, or Chief of Religion.*—In no part of the world have the ministers of religion more power than in Turkey, particularly the higher orders. In the grand Mufti, or Scheik-islam, is combined almost all the supreme power of the law as well as of religion. On all questions of a doubtful nature he is consulted, even by the Sultan himself, who promulgates no law, does not declare war, or levy any tax until it has received the Mufti's sanction; and his decisions are called fetfas. It is the Mufti, who girds on his sabre at his coronation, reminding him at the same time of his duty to promote the welfare of religion. To counterbalance, however, this vast power of the Mufti, which would otherwise be equal to that of the Sultan, the latter is able to depose, banish, or even put the Mufti to death, should he displease him. Hence he is, too frequently, the mere slave of the Sultan. The Muftis in the different parts of the empire are all appointed by the grand Mufti, who resides at Constantinople, and they here act in a double capacity: as expounders of the Koran and law-givers, but they never can be appointed judges, although they form a part of the body of Ulemas.

'The contempt which all the Mussulmen have for persons of a different religion shews itself in the courts of justice, where the evidence of a Jew or a Christian is not often admitted; and when it is, that of one Mussulman has more weight than the positive evidence of ten who profess a contrary religion.'

That we may not be accused of want of politeness to the sex, we shall conclude our extracts with brief descriptions of the *Turkish women of Constantinople*, and of *the Sultana*. Of the former, it is observed that

'The beauty of the Turkish, but more particularly of the Circassian or Georgian women is proverbial; but in most of them it must be confined to the face. From the mode of sitting on their sofas they stoop very much, and walk awkwardly; and the immoderate use of the warm, or even hot, bath, with continued indolence, produces such relaxation as to spoil a form which nature made equal to their faces. The latter are remarkable for symmetry a complexion. Their nose is Grecian, and their eyes, though gen rally small, and either black or dark blue, are brilliant and piercin The custom, too, of drawing a small line above and beneath the ey lash, adds to the effect. They stain the nails both of their finge and feet of a bright rose colour. Hence probably arose Home epithet of Ροδοδακτυλος Εως, "The rosy-fingered morn."

This explanation supposes the practice to be of great an quity.

'*Sultana, or Odalisk,* is a term by which all the females are disti guished except the few (about seven) who are raised to a superi rank, and are called Kaddins or Kadeuns. When the Sultan di misses any one of these either from caprice or satiety, which he do by sending her to the old Seraglio, another Odalisk takes her plac This of course is an honour eagerly sought after. One of the re sons, perhaps, of the Sultan's not marrying is, that he thinks hin self of a superior rank to other mortals, and that he shall degra himself by forming any connection of so intimate a nature wi what he looks upon as an inferior being.'

When we read such accounts, we congratulate the fair s of our own country that they are contemplated with more ju and liberal sentiments, and are placed by the laws in a mo honourable situation.

This series of plates on the Costume of Turkey is execute with particular elegance and brilliancy: but it is no doubt ca pable of enlargement. We think that, if it were intended t afford perfectly accurate ideas of the dresses of Turkey, i should have been preceded by particular delineations of th several parts which compose them. Especially, figures of th several kinds of Turbans, with the mode of specifying the de grees of honour by tails and other additions, seem to form necessary part of the plan.

ART. VII. *A Treatise on the Law of Insurance,* in Four Book I. Of Marine Insurances. II. Of Bottomry and Respondent III. Of Insurance upon Lives. IV. Of Insurance against Fi By Samuel Marshall, Serjeant at Law. 2 Vols. Royal 8 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

THE subject of the present work is of considerable impo ance, and has of late years experienced that attention a discussion which its consequence to a commercial country d mands. We have been called to notice the works of M Millar and Mr. Park; and though their performances merit great praise, yet, in the estimation of the present author, a other production on the same subject, embracing topics befo unnoticed, was likely to be found useful by the profession.

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‘The different branches,’ the Serjeant observes, ‘of marine insurance so blend themselves with each other, that the forming of any distinct and satisfactory analysis of it, is a task of no inconsiderable difficulty. In the various treatises on this subject which I have had occasion to examine, I have seen no arrangement that I could entirely approve.—Of the arrangement now adopted, the reader will be able to form his own judgment, upon inspection of the following analysis. It will there appear that the subject has been divided, as nearly as it could be, according to the natural order of events, from the first idea of the contract, till the final close of the transactions upon which it is to operate, or which arise out of it.’

In the introductory chapter, much curious and amusing information is given on the subject of marine insurance; which this writer inclines to think was of Italian origin. On the question whether the Romans were acquainted with this species of contract, we find the following observations; which we shall transcribe for the sake of our *learned*, rather than of our merely *professional*, readers:

‘As to the Romans, though the contract of bottomry, which is a species of insurance, was well understood among them, as we shall have occasion to shew hereafter, yet there is no mention of insurance in the Roman law; nor is there to be found in any book of that law, or in the Latin language, even a name for this contract, the word *assecuratio* being a barbarism adopted in Italy about the 12th or 13th century, when insurance probably first came into use there; nor does the history of that people any where afford a well-founded reason to believe that this contract was ever in use among them. It is true, that though they had no naval power before the first Punic war, they became masters of the sea before the second; and that, after the battle of Actium, their maritime strength was considered as equal to their dominion on land. But that warlike and ambitious people, during almost all the time of their greatness, cultivated navigation only with a view to war and conquest. Commerce was to them a subject of inferior consideration, which they left to be carried on by the slaves and freed-men of the great. To extend their conquests and consolidate their power, was their principal employment, and almost the only object of their care. Finding themselves masters of the greatest part of the then known world, which they had reduced to subjection by a series of unparalleled conquests, they might easily have engrossed the whole commerce of the nations they had subdued. But they disdained the sober pursuits of industry, the want of which they compensated by the spoils of the conquered provinces.

‘Besides, the jealous policy of the Roman state, by an ancient law established by Clodius the tribune, in the time of the first Punic war, and afterwards renewed by the Julian law, prohibited senators from building or possessing ships, lest the power resulting from this species of property might render them formidable to the state.

‘What commerce they carried on was principally, if not wholly, confined to the Mediterranean, Ægean, and Euxine seas, which were almost surrounded by their own dominions, and guarded by the armed fleets of the state, so as to remove all apprehension of *enemies or pirates*. Their small vessels rarely ventured out of port but in fine weather, and then only to coast along the shores, seldom venturing out of sight of land, even in the time of Augustus; the mere *perils of the sea* must therefore have been to them very inconsiderable. So that, whether we contemplate the *extent* of the Roman maritime commerce, or the *perils* to which it was exposed, we may reasonably conclude that it did not stand much in need of the protection of insurance.

'Some, however, have fancied that they could discover, in the Roman history, the first traces of this contract.—Livy relates, that during the second Punic war, certain contractors employed to transport ammunition and provisions to Spain, stipulated that the republic should indemnify them against such losses as might be occasioned by the enemy, or by tempests in the course of the voyage. "*Impetratum fuit, ut, quæ navibus imponerentur ad exercitum Hispaniensem deferenda, ab hostium tempestatisque vi, publico periculo essent.*" Others rely on a passage in Suetonius, who relates that the emperor Claudius, in a time of scarcity at Rome, in order to encourage the importation of corn, took upon himself all the loss or damage that might be occasioned by storms and tempests in its passage thither. *Negotiatoribus certa lucra proposuit, suscepto in se damno, si quid per tempestates accidisset; et naves, mercaturæ causâ, fabricantibus, magna commoda constituit.* Some years afterwards, contractors, who had been employed to convey provisions to the armies serving in the provinces, were prosecuted for having set up pretended shipwrecks as a ground of charge, the republic having taken such losses upon itself: *Publicum periculum erat à vi tempestatis in iis quæ portarentur ad exercitus.*

'But these instances only serve to shew, that the contractors were to transport the stores purchased of them to the places of their destination, at the risk of the republic. They have scarcely a resemblance in any one particular to the contract of insurance, and are to be looked upon merely as a mode of encouraging persons to supply the demands of the public. Upon no better authority, however, than the above passage in Suetonius, has Malynes roundly asserted, that Claudius had introduced the custom of insurance; 'whereby,' says he, 'the danger and hazard of goods is [illegible] borne by many persons, [illegible] that merchants might augment their traffic, and not adventure [illegible] bottom, to their loss and overthrow.' The [illegible] this custom coming to the knowledge of the [illegible] was recorded [illegible] and set down for a law, [illegible] the sea-coast towns of France.' And [illegible] of Wisbuy [illegible] collected by Malynes himself, which has the [illegible]

'A passage [illegible] is also adduced, as a proof [illegible] —Having gained [illegible] there, he [illegible] at Lao- [illegible] *omnis* [illegible]." From [illegible] to contract with persons who should be answerable for the risk of sending this money by sea to Rome. But the sense of the passage by no means warrants this inference. On the contrary, it seems that Cicero only meant to acquaint the *proquæstor*, that he would have the money at Laodicea, and there take security for its being paid at Rome, without any risk, either to himself or the republic. If this be the right interpretation of Cicero's words, it seems, as Mr. Park has very properly observed, to bear a much stronger allusion to the idea of remitting the money by means of *bills of exchange*, than to that of insuring against the perils of the sea.

'There is in the pandects, an observation of Ulpian, which affords greater colour for supposing that the contract of insurance was not altogether unknown to the Romans, than any of the passages above referred to. He says, "*Illa stipulatio, decem millia salva fore promittis? valet.*" This passage shews, however, that the contract alluded to, whatever it might have been, was very little known at the time Ulpian wrote, since he thought it necessary to observe that *it was not illegal.*'

The causes which led to the increase of maritime commerce, and in course to the introduction and improvement of this contract,—such as the crusades, the discovery of the mariner's compass, the erection of communities or corporations with exclusive privileges and jurisdictions, the discovery of America, and of the passage by sea to the East Indies,—are briefly but distinctly treated. In the account of foreign writers on this part of jurisprudence, Mr. Marshall remarks that

'Valin's commentary on the ordinance of the marine is of the highest value upon every topic of marine law. On the branch which relates to insurance, his commentary is clear, acute, and instructive. Pothier, in his treatise on contracts, unites the most profound learning with the purest morals and the most comprehensive judgment. That upon insurance is neat, concise, and masterly. Emerigon, whose treatise is confined to the subject of insurance, unites great learning with great practical knowledge. His book is, of all the foreign publications on this subject, the most useful to an English lawyer.'

Our own productions on this topic are mentioned in terms of commendation; and the author, in accounting for the few decisions in our courts of common law till the time in which Chief Justice Lee presided in the King's Bench, has given a satisfactory history of the erection of a court in the city of London for the exclusive trial of this description of causes.—The succeeding passage, as pointing out the intelligence which marked and the integrity which governed our determinations, must be read with pride by every Englishman:

'This, however, is certain, that after some of the decisions of the courts of Westminster, upon questions of insurance, came to be generally known, the confidence which the justice, impartiality, and ability of those courts inspired throughout Europe, soon induced t merchants of all countries to prefer English insurances to those any other country. Even our enemies, in time of war, were n afraid to rely on British justice, and they still continued to cause t greatest part of their insurances to be effected in London, such i surances being for a long time most unaccountably tolerated by t British government.'

As the praise here bestowed on Lord Mansfield was e tirely merited by that distinguished Judge, whose decisions o this subject nearly form a code of maritime law, we shall tra scribe the passage in which it is introduced :

' Upon Lord Mansfield's succeeding to the same high offic (namely to the Chief Justiceship of England,) upon the death Sir Dudley Ryder, he soon found a considerable influx of busine to the court of King's Bench, arising, in a great measure, fro the celebrity of his own talents. A great increase of insurance not only upon British commerce, but likewise upon that of oth countries, produced, about this time, a number of causes upon th subject, to which it became necessary for him to turn his particul attention ; and indeed he seems to have taken pleasure in the discu sion of questions arising upon this contract, in which, more, pe haps, than upon any other subject, he displayed the powers of h great and comprehensive mind. From the books of the commo law very little could be obtained : but upon the subject of marin law, and the particular subject of insurances, the foreign authoriti were numerous, and in general satisfactory. From these, and fro the information of intelligent merchants, he drew those leading pri ciples, which may be considered as the common law of the sea, an the common law of merchants, which he found prevailing througho the commercial world, and to which almost every question of in surance was easily referable. Hence the great celebrity of his judg ments upon such questions, and hence the respect they commande in foreign countries *.'

The present publication is divided into four books ; and it ha been the author's object to arrange his materials ' according t the natural order of events, from the first idea of the contract, til

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' * Of this there cannot be a better proof than the following :- Emerigon, though not altogether free from national prejudices, afte giving an account of the decision of the court of King's Bench, in th case of Lavabre v. Walter, concludes with these words ;—On n sauroit s'empêcher d'admirer cette maniere de procéder, quelqu éloignée qu'elle soit de nos mœurs ; car l'impression que fait la vert sur nous est si forte, que nous l'aimons jusques dans nos ennemi mêmes. (Ceci etoit écrit en 1781.)—*Tanta vis probitatis est, ut ea in hoste etiam, diligamus. Cic. de Amicitia*, c. 9. Les juges en Angle terre ne croient pas, que ce soit assez de bien faire ; ils donnent l motifs de leur decision, afin qu'on sache qu'on est soumis à l'empir de la loi, plutot qu' à l'autorite de l'homme.' Emerig. vol. ii. p. 67

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the final close of the transactions upon which it is to operate, or which arise out of it.' The decisions of our courts for the last seventy years, as they afford the best materials for a treatise on this subject, are introduced into these volumes. A few of these have never before been in print; others are cited from MS. notes, which appeared to the author fuller and more satisfactory than any that had been before published; and wherever he has discovered any thing which in his opinion militated against any acknowleged principle of law, he has conceived it to be his duty to comment on it with freedom, though with respect.—In this part of the work, many judicious observations will be found: but we must confess that, with the remarks on the celebrated case of *Carter* against *Boehm*, reported in 3 Burr. 1905. and in 1 Bl. 593. we by no means concur. It appears to us that the principles on which Lord Mansfield grounded his decision are perfectly consonant with equity, and not liable to the objections suggested by the learned serjeant. In the chapter on *Concealment*, and in that section of it which discusses *what things need not be disclosed*, this case is introduced; and in order that our readers may be enabled to form an opinion of the arguments which influenced Lord Mansfield's mind, we shall transcribe the rules on this subject, and then the case:

'Either party may be innocently silent as to many matters which are open to both, and upon which they may both exercise their judgments. *Aliud est celare, aliud tacere: Neque enim id est celare quicquid reticeas; sed cum, quod tu scias, id ignorare, emolumenti tui causâ, velis eos, quorum intersit, id scire.* This definition of concealment, restrained to the efficient motives and precise subject of any contract, will generally hold to make it void in favour of either party who is misled by his ignorance of the thing concealed.

'The insured may be innocently silent as to what the underwriter knows as well as he, however he may have come by his knowledge: *Scientia utrinque par pares contrahentes facit.* The insured therefore needs not mention what the underwriter *ought* to know, what he takes upon himself the knowledge of, or what he waves being informed of. The underwriter needs not to be told what lessens the risk agreed upon, and is understood to be comprised within the express terms of the policy. He needs not to be told what is the result of political speculations, or general intelligence: for instance, he is bound to know every cause which may occasion natural perils; as the difficulty of the voyage; the variation of seasons; the probability of lightning, hurricanes, &c.: he is bound to know every cause which may occasion political perils, from the rupture of states, from war, and the various operations of war: he is bound to know the probability of safety from the continuance and return of peace, from the imbecility of the enemy, the weakness of their councils, or their want of strength.'

In addition to these rules, it may be remarked that what is equally open to the observation of both parties needs not be disclosed; and that those things only ought to be communicated, which the one party privately knows, and the other has no reason for suspecting.—With due attention to these principles, we think, this curious and celebrated case was determined:—we hazard no opinion on the subject-matter of the insurance, nor on the expediency or inexpediency of permitting it; we only say that the policy ought not to have been vacated on the ground of an improper concealment.

' An insurance was made for a year, from the 16th of October 1759, against the capture of Fort Marlborough, in the island of Sumatra, by an enemy; for the benefit of the governor Geo. Carter.—The governor's instructions for the insurance were dated the 22d of September 1759, and the policy was signed in May 1760. The fort was taken by Count D'Estaigne within the year, viz. in April 1760, and an action brought to recover the loss.—On the trial, it was objected that there was fraud on the part of the insured, by the concealment of circumstances which ought to have been disclosed; particularly the weakness of the fort, and the probability of its being attacked by the French. This was offered to be proved by two letters; one from the governor to R. Carter his brother and agent; and the other to the India company, from which it appeared that the French, being unable to relieve their friends on the coast, were the more likely to make an attack on this settlement, which they had designed to take by surprise the year before; and that the broker who effected the policy, on his cross examination, said that *in his opinion*, these letters ought to have been produced or the contents disclosed; for if they had, the policy would not have been underwritten.—In reply to this, it was shewn that the governor had 20,000l. in effects in the fort, and only insured 10,000l.; that it did not appear that the French had any design to make the attack till the end of March; that the governor had acted as in full security down to February, and in that month turned his money into goods; and that, though his office was mercantile and not military, he was guilty of no fault in the defence of the place, which was not calculated to resist an European force, but only for defence against the natives.—The plaintiff had a verdict.—A new trial was moved for, on the ground that all the circumstances were not sufficiently disclosed to the underwriters.—But the court, after time taken to deliberate, were clearly of opinion that the plaintiff was intitled to recover, and that the verdict ought to stand.—Lord Mansfield, in delivering the opinion of the court, said;—"The contingency was, whether Fort Marlborough would be attacked by an European power, by *sea*, between October 1759 and October 1760. If it was, it must be taken, being incapable of resistance. The underwriter in London, in May 1760, could judge much better of the probability of this contingency, than governor Carter could at Fort Marlborough in September 1759. He knew the success of the operations of the war in Europe, what naval forces the English and French had sent to the East Indies, and whether the sea was open to any attempt from the French He knew, or might have known, every thing which was known at Fort Marlborough in September 1759, of the general state of affairs in the East Indies, or of the particular condition of Fort Marlborough, by the ship which brought the orders for the insurance *. Under these circumstances, he insures against the general contingency of the place being attacked by an European power. If there had been any design on foot or enterprize begun in September 1759, it would have varied the risk understood by the underwriter, on account of his not being told of a particular design *then subsisting*. But the governor had no notice of such a design, nor was there, in fact, any such design. The attempt was made without premeditation, from the sudden opportunity of a favourable occasion, by the connivance of the Dutch which tempted D'Estaigne to break his parole.—As to the *first* concealment, that he did not disclose the condition of the place,—The underwriters knew that the insurance was for the governor, who must be acquainted with the state of the place and who could not disclose it consistently with his duty †; but, by insuring, he apprehended at least the probability of an attack. With this knowledge, and without asking a question, he underwrote; and, by so doing, he took the knowledge of the state of the place upon himself, though it was a matter about which he might have been informed various ways: it was not a matter within the private knowledge of the governor only. But, independent of that, it is enough if the fort was in the condition in which it ought to be, which was only to resist the natives; in like manner as that a ship insured is presumed to be sea-worthy. The contingency insured against was, whether the place would be attacked by an European force, and not whether it would be able to resist such an attack, if the ships could get up the river. It was found that this was the contingency in the contemplation of the parties.—The *second* concealment was, his not having disclosed that the French, not being able to relieve their friends on the coast, might make an attack on him. This was mere speculation dictated by fear, and not a fact in the case. It was a bold attempt for the conquered to attack the conqueror in his own dominion. The practicability of it depended on the English naval force in those seas, of which the underwriter could better judge at London in May 1760, than the governor at Fort Marlborough in September 1759.—The *third* concealment was that

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'* There is nothing in the report of this case from whence it can be fairly inferred, that the underwriter knew, or might have known, all these things. The probability seems to be the other way; nor is it any excuse for a concealment, that the underwriter might, by inquiring, have learned all that it was necessary for him to know.'

'† The argument here used is not quite consistent with a subsequent part of this judgment, where, to prove that no fraud was imputable to the governor, it is said,—"By the same conveyance which brought his orders to insure, he wrote to the company every thing which he knew or suspected; and desired nothing to be kept a secret which he wrote either to them or his brother."

he did not disclose the design of the *French* to attack the place the year before. That design rested merely in report; but taking it in the strongest light, it is the report of a design the year before; but then dropped.—Another silence, not objected to was, that it appeared by the governor's letter to his agent, that he was apprehensive of a Dutch war: that he had good grounds for this apprehension appeared from the subsequent conduct of the Dutch, to whom the loss of the place was owing. The reason why the counsel did not object to this concealment was, because it must have arisen from political speculation, and general intelligence; and it is not necessary to disclose such things to an underwriter.—With respect to the opinion of the broker, the jury were not bound to pay the least regard to it. It was mere opinion, after the event. If rightly formed, it could only be drawn from the same premises from which the court and jury were to determine the cause; and therefore improper and irrelevant in the mouth of a witness.—With respect to the governor, there was no ground to impute fraud to him. By the same conveyance which brought his orders to insure, he wrote to the company every thing he knew or suspected. He desired nothing to be kept secret which he wrote to them or to his brother [*]. The reason of the rule against concealments is, to prevent fraud and encourage good faith [†]. If the defendant's objections were to prevail, in the present instance, the rule would be turned into an instrument of fraud. The underwriter, knowing that the governor apprehended danger, and that he must have some ground for his apprehension, being told nothing of either, signed the policy, without asking a question. If the objection "that he was not told" be sufficient to vacate it, he took the premium, *knowing* the policy to be void [‡], in order to gain if the alternative turned one way, and make no satisfaction, if it turned out the other. There was not a word said to him of the affairs of India, or the state of the war there, or the condition of Fort Marlborough.

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[*] 'What he wrote to the company was not likely to be made public, and therefore not likely to come to the knowledge of the underwriter! What he wrote to his brother ought to have been disclosed; and though this concealment might not be imputable to the governor as a *fraud*, yet its effect in avoiding the policy would be the same. It is said that he desired nothing to be concealed: but a concealment without the desire, or even against the will, of the insured, will avoid a policy.' Vid. sup. 335.

[†] 'We have his Lordship's authority, and the authority of plain reason for saying, that a concealment may avoid a policy, and yet be quite innocent.' Vid. sup. 347.

[‡] 'How could the underwriter *know* that the policy was void by reason of a concealment, without knowing what was concealed? Upon whom does the obligation lie; the insured to disclose what he knows, or the underwriter to fish it out by asking questions? The argument goes to prove, that if the underwriter asks no questions, the insured is obliged to disclose nothing; which is true only with respect to matters of public notoriety.'

If he thought that omission an objection at the time *, he ought not to have signed the policy, with a secret reserve in his own mind to make it void: if he dispensed with the information †, and did not think this silence an objection then, he cannot take it up now after the event."

From the length of our extracts, it will easily be inferred that we think favourably of the general merits of this work, though we have expressed our dissent from some particular passages. Certainly, much useful knowlege is here collected; and the author has evinced powers of patient industry and nice discrimination, though in some instances he may be considered as having betrayed symptoms of subtlety and refinement, which the subject scarcely admitted.

Art. VIII. *Observations on the Marsh Remittent Fever*, &c. Also on the Water Canker, or Cancer Aquaticus of Van Swieten; with some Remarks on the Leprosy. By the late Robert Hamilton, M. D. of King's Lynn. With Memoirs of the Author's Life. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Mawman. 1801.

This posthumous work is introduced by a brief account of the author; who appears to have been a very respectable physician, but whose life affords no occurrence that can gratify curiosity. The essays on the Marsh Remittent Fever are calculated chiefly for local information. Dr. H. observes that inundations are generally followed, on the coast of Norfolk, by remittent fevers; and the epidemic which he describes continued nearly five years. It then declined, and did not again appear as an epidemic:

'It is not easy (says Dr. H.) to ascertain the cause of this fortunate alteration, from a highly morbid predisposition to a dangerous epidemic fever, and a total cessation of its appearance in that form: probably, however, this change may be found to have proceeded from the great quantity of rain, which has fallen in the summer months of every succeeding year to that period; which, by keeping the mud or ooze of the fens, marshes, and ditches, covered with water; the air temperate, or rather cool from the evaporation; and thus preventing, in a great degree, the putrefaction of animal and vegetable matter, and consequently the exhalation of putrid miasmata: the atmosphere, of course, was preserved more pure and uncontaminated, and the marsh remittent fever prevented from appearing in an epidemic form. Yet, notwithstanding this favourable circumstance, some sporadic cases of this and the intermittent, from particular local circumstances, con-

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'* How could he judge of the omission, without knowing what was omitted?'

'† How could he be supposed to dispense with the information when the silence of the insured was, according to all practice, a proof that he had none to communicate?'

tinue, and ever will, to make their appearance in the usual seasons, every year, although in no great number.

'We are led by analogy to consider this to have been the case, because long experience had taught us, that the continuance of the disease was checked by rains filling the ditches in winter, and the cold stopping its progress in an epidemic form.'

The following is a description of the disease:

'The attack of this distemper was marked by a chilness, sometimes by a shivering like the cold stage of an intermittent; and this rigour was of different degrees of violence and duration, in different subjects, and often accompanied with wandering spasmodic pains in the back and extremities. This was succeeded by an intense burning heat in the trunk of the body, particularly about the gastric region and the hypochondria, without any remarkable thirst, whilst at the same time the extremities were cold to the touch and feeling of the patient; the head ached violently, the pulse was low, irregular, and very quick, and the whole was accompanied with anxiety, and great, indeed most extraordinary, prostration of strength. This was generally attended with a vomiting of viscid matter, acid, offensive to the smell, and mixed with bile, either yellow or green, often of a very dark green colour, approaching to black; and sometimes the matter thus ejected was black. There was most commonly a most profuse purging also, of the same kind, exceedingly fœtid, and so acrid as to excoriate the parts about the anus: in short, these two discharges constituted a symptomatic cholera morbus.

'Those symptoms continued with great violence for twelve or fourteen hours before any remission took place, when a gentle sweat broke out, the fever abated, and the vomiting and purging lessened, or entirely ceased, as the sweating increased; but this remission was but of short duration, perhaps three or four hours, when the chilness and exacerbation of fever recurred with additional violence, and the same train of subsequent symptoms. The tongue had a most singular appearance, and indeed was so characteristic of the disease, that the bare inspection of it was sufficient to distinguish its existence. It was at first moist, with a thin white mucous covering, which in a few days became gradually thicker, forming a coat much resembling thin wet leather stretched over it; and as the disease advanced some twelve or more days, it turned brown in the middle, and in many black, in the last stage of the distemper, but never very dry and parched.'

Dr. H. has described several varieties of the complaint, which sometimes ran into the worst form of Typhus. We observe nothing particularly deserving notice in the practice recommended by the Doctor. He gave an emetic at the onset of the disease, afterward a purgative, followed by an opiate; and on the first subsequent remission, Peruvian bark was administered.—All the practical observations deserve attention, being very judicious, and delivered in plain unaffected language.

The symptoms of the Water-Canker, which is a disease (according to the author) endemic on the coast of Norfolk, are thus delineated:

'The first symptom of the approach of the water-canker is an inflammation without any swelling, of a remarkable bright pale red colour, on the sharp edge of the gums next the teeth, sometimes in the upper, sometimes in the lower jaw, very rarely in both at the same time. It is most commonly before, at the bottoms of the dentes incisivi, but sometimes it appears on the sides at the molares. This inflammation generally extends along five or more teeth, and the colour of it is so remarkable, that it is readily known and distinguished from common inflammation, and its consequences dreaded by people conversant with the distemper. The inflamed edge of the gums soon becomes ulcerated, in nearly a straight line, as far as the inflammation reaches, as if the edge had been cut off by a sharp instrument. The same kind of inflammation continues on the outer edge of the ulceration, and within that towards the teeth, there is either a white or an ash coloured slough extending from one end to the other, which is a real gangrenous eschar. The breath begins to be very offensive, and a discharge of a very fœtid ichor mixed with saliva flows plentifully from the mouth. The ulcer spreads daily, the gums being gradually eaten as it were away by the corrosive ichor. The discharge increases and becomes more offensive, and the eschar becomes deeper, and is frequently coming away and is succeeded by a fresh one. The ulcer bleeds on the slightest touch, and small coagula forming are detained on different parts of the surface, covering and disguising the slough. Thus does the disease continue its ravages until the gums are destroyed completely, and extending to the lining of the mouth, the neighbouring soft parts are involved in the destruction. The teeth now drop out, and happy is it for the patient if the depredation stops here, as their loss if the patient is very young may be supplied; but this is not often the case; for the secondary teeth next fall victims to its virulence, and with them the alveolar processes. Even cruel as this evil is, it would here be comparatively tolerable, could a stop be now put to the ravages of this rapacious enemy, which is very seldom to be effected; for now begins a scene shocking to humanity.

'The disease seeming to have acquired force in proportion to the extension of the ulcer, and the destruction it has occasioned, the fœtor becomes intolerable, the discharge then glazy and caustic to the highest degree, is prodigious in quantity, and corrodes wherever it falls. The bones, now a prey to the distemper, are as readily destroyed, indeed really dissolved (no vestige of the softer ones remaining) as the soft parts; and the destruction daily goes on, exhibiting a most shocking spectacle, until death happily puts a period to the pains and existence at the same time, of the miserable patient, which generally happens in a few days after the bones are affected.

'The concomitant symptoms attending the progress of this distemper are as follow.

'The pulse is quick, accompanied at first with frequent rigors; the countenance is of a dusky pale cadaverous hue; the tunicæ conjunctivæ oculorum of a remarkable blue cast; and as the disease goes on, the features and indeed the whole visage become contracted, an strongly marked with the distress of the suffering patient.'

The external application of the muriatic acid, in a dilute state, was found by Dr. Hamilton to be the most efficaciou remedy; and, internally, the same acid was given, with Peruvian bark.

We forbear to criticize the remarks on leprosy, at the co clusion of the volume, because they are evidently published i a very imperfect state, without the last correction and r vision of the writer.—Altogether, with due allowance for th disadvantageous circumstances under which this volume a pears, it will not detract from the merited reputation of D Hamilton.

Art. IX. *Observations on the Increase and Decrease of different Di eases*, and particularly of the Plague. By William Heberde jun., M.D. F.R.S. 4to. 5s. Payne. 1801.

Among the different channels, through which the improvement of medicine has been attempted, few are more important than the registers of mortality. Yet so imperfect have the been often found, that inquirers have been deterred from pursuing the deductions which might be drawn from more accurate information. Dr. Heberden observes that,

> 'The agreement of the Bills with each other does alone carr with it a strong proof, that the numbers under the several article are by no means set down at random; but must be taken from th uniform operation of some permanent cause. While the gradua changes they exhibit in particular diseases, correspond to the alterations which in time are known to take place in the channels throug which the great stream of mortality is constantly flowing.'

The body of the work consists of two tables; the first o which contains the annual christenings and burials in London fo each year of the eighteenth century; together with the proportion out of every thousand, who have died by bowel complaints, small-pox, palsy, measles, or child-birth. The secon table consists of ten different articles, extracted from th London weekly bills of mortality, shewing their variations i every week for ten years.

Among other curious facts noticed by Dr. Heberden, i his remarks on these tables, he observes that there was a considerable diminution of christenings from 1740 to 176 For this, he says, it is not easy to account: but, as it is co nected with some important conclusions, we shall extract h rther observations on the subject:

'Whate

'Whatever be the cause of this, the christenings appear in fact to have been fewest at a time when the burials were nearly at the highest. Hence the difference of the numbers christened and buried is greater between the years 1740 and 1750, than at any preceding or subsequent period. This difference diminished afterwards; but still continued very considerable till about 1770. Now, it was from an average of ten years taken in this interval, namely from 1759 to 1768, that Dr. Price constructed his tables of the probabilities of life, and from which he deduced the population of London. The excess of the burials above the christenings amounted at that time to nearly one-third of the whole number of burials. At present, it is less than one-twentieth: nay, in the years 1790, 1797, and 1799, the excess was actually on the side of the christenings. Such a prodigious change ought, one would think, considerably to alter Dr. Price's conclusions. Some allowances are however to be made; particularly in consequence of an act of parliament passed in 1767, by which it is required that all parish infants shall be sent into the country in three weeks after their birth, to be nursed there till they are six years old. How many burials of children are taken out of the bills in consequence of this act, it is not easy to estimate; but that it must be a large number, is rendered probable by the remarkable decrease of those reported to die under two years of age.'

The decline of Dysentery in London is another curious fact; which Dr. H. imputes to the improvements that have taken place in the manner of living.

That the mortality from small-pox has increased since the introduction of inoculation, though not by the death of those who have been inoculated, is a fact which has been satisfactorily explained: but the vaccine inoculation, we trust, will effectually diminish the ravages of that dreadful disease.

The number of deaths from apoplexy and palsy has been increasing, and is now nearly double its amount a hundred years ago.

The mortality of lying-in women appears to have diminished. The following statement is given by Dr. H. as the average of the mortality occasioned by certain diseases, during a period of ten years, at the beginning, middle, and end of the 18th century:

	Beginning.	Middle.	End.
'Abortive and Still-born -	600	570	750
Colic, Flux, Gripes, &c. -	1,100	135	20
Consumption -	3,000	4,000	5,000
Dropsy - -	850	900	900
Evil -	70	15	8
Fever - -	3,000	3,000	2,000
Gout - -	26	40	66
Lunatic -	27	75	70
Palsy, Apoplexy, &c. -	157	280	300
Rickets -	380	11	1
Small Pox -	1,600	2,000	2,000

‘The whole number of deaths is greatest in January, February, and March; and least in June, July, and August. February, Dr. H. thinks, is the most fatal month of the twelve.—He states several arguments against the opinion that wet weather is noxious to the human body, and instances particularly the wet year 1797, which was a healthy one.

The decrease of the plague, till its happy extinction in London, is attributed by Dr. Heberden (in common with other authors,) to the improved modes of building and ventilation, introduced after the great fire. Though in this part of the work we meet with no novelty of opinion, yet we were pleased to see the collection of accurate facts which Dr. H. has made on this most interesting point. We trust that he will prosecute researches so useful, without being discouraged by their laborious nature, or by the meagreness of deduction with which they are attended.

Another medical work has been published by Dr. Heberden, which will shortly engage our attention.

Art. X. *A Treatise on the Means of purifying Infected Air, or preventing Contagion,* and arresting its Progress. By L. B. Guyton-Morveau. Translated from the French by R. Hall, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hurst. 1802.

This celebrated chemist here informs the public that he had recommended fumigation with the vapour of the muriatic acid, so long ago as the year 1773, in order to correct the noxious atmosphere of the burying-vaults under the church at Dijon; and he gives a history of the progress of this plan, which seems to have been forgotten in France till the trials of it in our navy recalled it to notice. He then enters into a detail of his experiments on the combination of the vapours of acids with noxious gas, and takes occasion to state some curious facts on the subject of putrefaction. He found that a considerable quantity of carbonic acid gas was disengaged in putrid substances, and that lime extricates ammoniacal gas from them:

‘But the first experiment furnishes us with a result much more important, and which cannot be too much dwelt upon, in order to undeceive those who imprudently confide in the opinion which unfortunately has met with too general a reception, that lime water decomposes the contagious miasmata. It proves that corrupted air preserves its smell, even after being agitated with lime water, and before the latter is deprived of its active qualities. From this fact we may learn how to estimate the practice, recommended in the most recent works, even in cases of plague, of new white-washing with lime the walls of infected places.’—

'The ammoniacal gas extricated by lime from putrid animal substances, is undoubtedly a new compound, as well as that obtained by distillation from the same substances before putrefaction. It might hence be presumed, that if it be not the volatile principle which carries up with it into the atmosphere the contagious miasmata, it is at least one of the ingredients in their composition.'

The fumes of vinegar and of the mineral acids were found, by a series of experiments, to correct the fœtor of putrid air, and to destroy its peculiar action on different substances: but the fumes of the oxygenated muriatic acid proved the most powerful in this respect.—We shall copy the author's account of a very easy method of procuring this gas:

'Into a flask, the capacity of which was three centilitres, I introduced four grammes of the black oxyd of manganese, grossly powdered; I then filled the flask about two thirds full with the nitro-muriatic acid. After a few minutes, on being agitated, the oxygenated acid gas was disengaged with such intensity, that vegetable colours, applied to the mouth of the flask, were in a very short time radically destroyed. The ease, and particularly the promptitude, with which, without the intervention of a distilling apparatus, this powerful re-agent may thus be procured, induced me to name it the *extemporaneous oxygenated muriatic acid,* and I have since discovered another property of this preparation which will render it still more generally useful. The difficulty of preserving the oxygenated muriatic acid, procured by the common processes, unchanged even in the closest vessels, is well known; whatever may have been the degree of its concentration when put up, we always find it after a short time reduced to a liquid which only changes into red, paper tinged with turnsol, without destroying the colouring principle. A jar prepared in the manner here pointed out, after being forgotten eight years in my laboratory, diffused, on being opened, an odour capable of painfully affecting the organs when breathed without precaution.'

The explosion of gun-powder appears to have no effect on putrid air.

M. Guyton-Morveau recommends the employment of the oxygenated muriatic acid in order to destroy the putrid vapours in dissecting rooms, and he expects that it may be used with great success in preventing the diffusion of contagion. We suspect, however, that, like many other chemists, he attributes too great a degree of medicinal power to oxygen. His account of the anti-siphylitic action of the mineral acids is not supported by general experience; and he certainly overrates the medical effects of the gases, internally administered. The author enters into some curious speculations on the nature of contagion, which he supposes to depend on *superazotation*: but this can only be regarded as an ingenious conjecture. The experiments related on the neutralization of variolous and siphylitic matter, by mixing it with oxygen; require confirmation. In the latter case, indeed, there is great room for doubt, because it is not stated whether the pus was taken from a primary or from a secondary ulcer.

A hint suggested respecting the poison of hydrophobia deserves attention. The butter of antimony is recommended by M. le Roux, as capable of destroying the infection by chemical affinity, in the wound. This ought to be tried.

In the recapitulation with which the volume concludes, the author gives the following directions for fumigating with muriatic acid gas, which may be easily practised in any family:

> ' The following receipt will render every individual capable of performing the process of fumigation; for which no other apparatus is necessary than a bottle of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol of commerce), a large glass goblet, and some common salt. The goblet being placed on the ground, or on a table in the middle of the room, a large spoonful of the salt must be put into it, and a very small *liqueur* glass full of the acid should be added at three or four different times, with an interval between each time; at every effusion of the acid there will be disengaged and diffused throughout the apartment a quantity of vapour, which will come into contact with the fetid or malignant miasmata, without producing any inconvenience to the persons present.'

To obtain the oxygenated muriatic gas, it is only necessary to add a small quantity of the black oxyd of manganese to the preceding ingredients.—We shall be glad to learn that M. Guyton-Morveau's facts and opinions are corroborated by farther experience; because the subject is of the first importance to society.—Several judicious notes are added by the translator, who has executed his task in a very respectable manner.

ART. XI. M. Denon's *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt.*—Two Translations.

[*Article concluded from p.* 166.]

WITH pleasure we resume our attendance on this intelligent and enterprizing traveller, who appears to have availed himself of every opportunity for exploring a country which, notwithstanding the repeated visits of ingenious and philosophic individuals, is yet very imperfectly known to Europeans. Even M. Denon's situation, though it afforded advantages superior to those which his predecessors enjoyed, was not altogether propitious to the chief objects of his inquiries. The French army under General Desaix, detached by Bonaparte to effect the conquest of Upper Egypt, was so continually harrassed by Arabs, Mamelukes, and Meccans, headed by Murad

Bey, and it was so often in imminent danger of being completely destroyed, that it could not furnish that protection to the artist and the antiquary which was necessary to perfect research, and to the execution of accurate drawings and admeasurements. None can withhold their admiration of the undaunted perseverance of M. Denon in the midst of perils and hardships; while few will be thoroughly satisfied, because, like former travellers, he rather stimulates than allays our curiosity. Indeed, we are induced to lament that, since the heroism of our army and navy had atchieved the complete conquest of Egypt, our Government did not resolve on retaining possession of it; and on following up the plan of the French by attaching to the army (which must have been kept up in that country) a corps of scientific men, whose office it should be to explore its antiquities and to suggest the best means for its improvement. We might then have obtained an accurate and full account of every interesting object; we might have made that country a source of riches equally perhaps, with any region of the East; and we might have diffused happiness among a people who are now oppressed by the most miserable of all governments. Since this desirable event was not destined to take place, the glimmering of light which appeared to dawn on Egypt is now eclipsed, and it seems to be again doomed to remain the land of darkness and of plagues.

In former ages, the state of Egypt must have been the reverse of its present condition. Antient history, and the antiquities which still exist, attest its pristine knowlege, civilization, and importance. It has been remarked that the Greeks, to whom the invention of architecture is generally ascribed, were only copiers of the Egyptians[*]; who certainly carried this art to an astonishing degree of perfection. Still, however, it is doubtful whether its origin should be ascribed to them, or whether we are not to consider Chaldea as the source of the sciences, as it undoubtedly was the cradle of the human race: but, to whatever country the absolute invention is to be attributed, the nature of the materials found in Egypt by the artist[†], combining with the projects executed under the direction of her antient kings and priests, has stamped such permanency on the works of Egyptian architects, that we may now seek in vain, on any other spot of the globe, for remains of equal antiquity. Hence these monuments challenge singular veneration; and it may be presumed that, when they are carefully explored and studied, they will suggest such hints to the modern artist as will enable him to improve the system delivered to us by our Grecian masters. Pocock, Norden, and others, have copied in their works the various beautiful forms of the Egyptian capitals. M. Denon has followed them by enriching his Travels with similar drawings: he has indeed enlarged the collection of capitals; and he has subjoined to the plates which exhibit them the following note, which, though not new, is at least judicious:

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[*] In the preface to Norden's Travels, it is observed that "the curious may find in Egypt the school of Grecian architecture."

[†] Some of the Egyptian columns are thirty-two *French* feet in circumference.—How much nobler a west-front would St. Paul's Cathedral have exhibited, had our quarries furnished to Sir Christopher Wren similar materials! Surely, then it would not have exhibited two tiers of columns.

'In viewing such variety of form, uniting such richness of ornament with elegance of outline, one may well be surprised that the world has allowed the Greeks, on their own assertion, the merit of being the inventors of architecture, and that all the truths of this art are to be sought for in the rules of the three Grecian orders. Might we not suppose that if some history, like that of the urn of the priestess of Corinth, were attached to each of these capitals, they would each have acquired equal celebrity; or rather we may assert, that they require no adventitious reputation to claim the admiration of all lovers of the fine arts, as beautiful productions of human skill.

'The Egyptians have copied nature, such as it appears in their own country; this the Greeks have borrowed from them, and have added to it nothing but fable. Here, the calyx of a flower, supported by its stem, has furnished the form of the column, its base, and its capital; the lotus has afforded the first model, and this plant was expressive of the inundation, the emblem of the entrance of the Nile into the canals, the greatest bounty which nature bestows on the Egyptians; they have therefore introduced this plant into the decoration of their temples, as a homage of gratitude to Isis, who presided over this bounteous gift: as goddess of the earth, they have also dedicated to her the other productions of the soil, the reed, the palm, the vine, &c.' [*ikin.*]

'Among these significant capitals, which adorned in an explicative manner the worship of the divinity whose temple they decorated, may be particularized one from which spring the leaves and stems of the papyrus or reed; a second, composed of the branches and leaves of the palm-tree, and the different stages of its fruit, is perhaps the most elegant of all known capitals, and one which, without having in Europe that interest which belongs to it in Egypt, would still make the most splendid of decorations for a banqueting or ball room; a third is composed of several calyxes of the flower of the lotus, grouped with the leaves of the plant; a fourth, of a bunch of the tufts of palm-trees, when, in spring time, the branches and flowers are not yet developed, and the whole tree resembles the bud of a flower; a fifth is ingeniously made up of the root of the plant lotus, its stem, and its flower alternately open and in bud; a sixth, of branches of the vine mingled with those of palm-trees. This variety of

> als, thus richly compounded, enable us to give credit to the
> s descriptions which have been transmitted to us of those of
> ple of Solomon, which are spoken of in the scriptures as Co-
> capitals with leaves of the palm-tree.
> : head of Isis, with all her attributes, crowns the columns of
> ple of Tintyra. In the temple of Hermontis, which appears
> been dedicated to Typhon, his figure is represented on a
> ch is no more than a prolongation of the column; this mem-
> ırchitecture, which appears to be peculiar to the Egyptian
> disengages the capital, prevents its appearing to be crushed
> architrave, and produces so fine an effect when the eye is
> e column, that it is astonishing it should never have been
> l.' [*Kendal.*]

)enon adds also that the Grecian Caryatides were imi-
om the figures of priests, or divinities, employed as or-
:s in various Egyptian edifices.—The bases of the
s in the portico of the temple at Latopolis are sin-
beautiful, and may be often copied with good effect.
t is extremely probable that the temple of Solomon at
em was built from an Egyptian model, may we not
ɪresume that the two pillars which are said to have been
before it, (see 2. Chron. iii. 17.) and called Jachin and
were two *obelisks*, similar to those which are now to be
:fore the temple of Luxor?
readers will make other remarks, which we must not
t farther to anticipate; a great part of M. Denon's
still remaining to be noticed.
n Tintyra, the traveller proceeded to Thebes in com-
ith the cavalry belonging to General Desaix's army;
: impression which the approach to that celebrated city
ed is thus described:

> nine o'clock, in making a sharp turn round the point of a
> ng chain of mountains, we discovered all at once the site of
> ient Thebes in its whole extent: this celebrated city, the
> which Homer has characterized by the single expression of
> *hundred gates*, a boasting and poetical phrase, that has been
> l with so much confidence for many centuries; this illustrious
> scribed in a few pages dictated to Herodotus by Egyptian
> that have been since copied by every historian, celebrated by
> ıber of its kings, whose wisdom has raised them to the rank
> ı, by laws which have been revered without being promul-
> by science involved in pompous and enigmatical inscriptions,
> t monuments of ancient learning which are still spared by the
> time; this abandoned sanctuary, surrounded with barbarism,
> ıin restored to the desert from which it had been drawn forth,
> ed in the veil of mystery, and the obscurity of ages, whereby
> s own colossal monuments are magnified to the imagination,
> pressed the mind with such gigantic phantoms, that the whole

army, suddenly and with one accord, stood in amazement at the sight of its scattered ruins, and clapped their hands with delight, as if the end and object of their glorious toils, and the complete conquest of Egypt, were accomplished and secured by taking possession of the splendid remains of this ancient metropolis. I took a view of this first aspect of Thebes, along with the spectacle before me; the knees of the enthusiastic soldiers served me as a table, their bodies as a shade, whilst the dazzling rays of the burning sun enlightened this magnificent spectacle, and exhibited the electric emotion of a whole army of soldiers, whose delicate sensibility made me feel proud of being their companion, and glory in calling myself a Frenchman.

'The situation of this town is as fine as can well be imagined; and the immense extent of its ruins convinces the spectator that fame has not magnified its size; for the diameter of Egypt not being sufficient to contain it, its monuments rest upon the two chains of mountains which are contiguous, whilst its tombs occupy the vallies towards the west, far on into the desert.' [*Aikin.*]

M. Denon visits the Necropolis *, the colossal statues of Memnon and Osymandyas, the portico of Esneh or Latopolis, the purest fragment of Egyptian architecture, Hieraconpolis, and Apollinopolis Magna. We shall transcribe his remarks on the colossal statues:

'At some paces from this gate are the remains of an enormous colossus; it has been wantonly shattered, for the parts which are left have so well preserved their polish, and the fractures their edges, that it is evident, if the spirit of devastation in mankind had trusted to time alone to ruin this monument, we should still see it entire and uninjured. Suffice it to say, to give an idea of its dimensions, that the breadth of the shoulders is twenty-five feet, which would give about seventy-five for the entire height: the figure is exact in its proportions, the style middling, but the execution perfect; when overset, it fell upon its face, which hides this interesting part; the drapery being broken, we can no longer judge by its attributes whether it is the figure of a king or a divinity. Is it the statue of Memnon, or that of Osymandyas?—the descriptions hitherto given of this monument throw more confusion than light upon this question. If it is the statue of Memnon, which appears to me the more probable, every traveller for two thousand years must have mistaken the object of their curiosity, as will be seen by the inscription of the names on another colossal statue, of which I shall directly speak.

'One foot of this statue remains, which is broken off and in good preservation; it may be easily carried away, and may give those in Europe a scale of comparison of the monuments of this species, and

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'* All the discussions published (says M. Denon) on this subject, and which render its situation uncertain, have been written by learned men, who never visited Egypt, and were therefore incapable of judging how scrupulously exact are the descriptions of it, given by Herodotus and Strabo.'

will serve as a companion to the colossal feet which are in the court of the capitol at Rome. The spot where this figure stood might be either a temple or a palace, or both at the same time; for if the bas-relief would belong more properly to a royal residence, the figures of eight priests, which are in the front of two porticoes in the inner part, would peculiarly indicate a temple, except indeed they were introduced to remind the sovereign that, conformably to the law, the priests ought always to serve and assist in the exercise of monarchical power.

'Our attention was arrested in the plain by two large statues in a sitting posture, between which, according to Herodotus, Strabo, and those who have copied the relation of these writers, was the famous statue of Osymandyas, the largest of all these colossal figures. Osymandyas had prided himself so much on the execution of this bold design, that he had caused an inscription to be engraven on the pedestal of the statue, in which he defied the power of man to destroy this monument, as well as that of his tomb, the pompous description of which now appears only a fantastic dream. The two statues still left standing are doubtless those of the mother and the son of this prince, mentioned by Herodotus: that of the king himself has disappeared, the hand of time and the teeth of envy appear to have united zealously in its destruction, and nothing of it remains but a shapeless rock of granite; so that it requires the persevering look of the amateur, accustomed to this kind of examination, to distinguish any portions of the figure which have escaped destruction; and even those are so insignificant, that they can throw no light on its dimensions. The two statues still existing are in the proportion of from fifty to sixty-five feet in height; they are seated with their two hands on their knees; all that remains of them shews a severity of style, and a straightness of position. The bas-reliefs and the small figures clustered round the seat of the southermost of these statues, are not without elegance and delicacy in the execution. On the leg of the statue the most to the north, the names of the illustrious and ancient travellers who came to hear the sound of the statue of Memnon are written in Greek. We may here see the great influence which celebrity exercises over the minds of men, since, when the ancient Egyptian government and the jealousy of the priests no longer forbade strangers to touch these monuments, the love of the marvellous retained its empire over the minds of those that came hither as visitors. Thus, in the age of Adrian, which was enlightened by philosophy, Sabina, the wife of this emperor, and herself a literary woman, condescended, along with the learned men who accompanied her, to acknowledge that she had heard sounds which no physical cause could have produced. But the vanity of inscribing one's name on such antiquities might very easily have produced the first on the list, and the natural desire of becoming an associate in this kind of glory might have added the rest, and this is doubtless the reason of the numberless inscriptions of names which we find here, with so many dates, and in so many languages.' [*Aikin.*]

The pleasure which resulted from the survey of these magnificent objects was not without its alloy, as the following detail will evince. On the day after their visit to Apollinopolis Magna, says the traveller,

'We entered the desert by a mountain composed of decayed slate, free-stone, white and rose-coloured quartz, and brown flint, with several white cornelians. After marching five hours in the desert, our soldiers had their shoes torn, and were obliged to put what linen they could about their feet, and were tormented with a burning thirst. No water could be found but in the Nile which was a league out of our way, for the banks were as arid as the desert; but the urgency of thirst prevailed, and we arrived at the river exhausted with fatigue; but the camp equipage, the draught animals of which had had no food the night before, were so weakened by hunger, that but a few of them were able to follow. What was the general distress when it was announced that there was nothing to eat! We looked at each other in mute consternation: but, after a while, a camel with a light load of butter came up, and some others, whose provision-sacks had been already emptied; but by shaking out every dust of meal from the bags, and rummaging every corner, we found enough to make a distribution of a handful of flour to each: directly we got firing from a neighbouring tree made our flour into fritters, employment drove away our gloomy ideas, and French gaiety soon prevailed, and restored our usual courage. We set out again briskly after our refreshment; but our poor horses, who had not regaled upon fritters, fell down from under us through inanition; we could do nothing but lead and support them with our hands, or else we must have abandoned them; in short, we were compelled to march, and our necessity alone made it practicable, and many are the resources contained in this single word, necessity.

'Half an hour after we had passed the first desert, we came to the ruins of Silsilis, which consist of broken fragments, bricks, and the remains of a temple, the highest walls of which are now not more than three feet above the soil. One can just discover that the nave of the temple, which is covered with hieroglyphics, was surrounded with a gallery, to which, in a latter period, a portico without hieroglyphics has been added. We returned a third time into the desert; a hyena followed the column for a considerable time.' [*Aikin.*]

The French being bent on conquering as well as on exploring Upper Egypt, opposition and danger were created, which the presence of an army could not always obviate: hence we find the French artist incessantly surrounded with imminent perils; and his journal in many instances resembles more a dispatch from the General of an army than a communication from a scientific traveller. We shall however principally regard him in the latter character, though we must not forget to relieve the sombre views of ruins by the occasional introduction of a battle-piece.—M. Denon now advances to Siene, to the island of Elephantina, to the blocks of granite engraven with hieroglyphics, and to the cataracts of the Nile, which latter are represented as very inconsiderable.

'We quitted (says he) the little boat in which we had come up, and walking by the side of the stream for about a quarter of an hour, we came to the part which is generally called *the cataract*. This is nothing but a range of rocks, over which the river flows, forming in some places cascades a few inches in height; they are so insignificant, that they can hardly be represented in a drawing; but I just sketched the bar where this celebrated navigation ends, in order to do away the impression that has been given of the great fall of these famous cataracts. However, they would make a fine picture, if they were represented with the colour which characterizes them.' [*Aikin.*]

The reader will recollect that M. Denon's visit to this spot was in the month of February. Norden, who saw the same cataract in December, says that "it had about *four* feet in its fall and thirty feet in length." Another of our former travellers, Dr. Pocock, describes these cataracts more particularly. He speaks of three falls: the first not above three feet; the second may be about seven or eight feet; the third, he says, is greater than the other, the middle fall of which he judged to be five feet. None of these accounts, however, justify the extravagant notions entertained by the antients, respecting the stunning noise occasioned by these falls. See Cicero, Som. Scip. c. 5. This passage would better apply to the Falls of Niagara than to the *Catadupa Nili*.

The view of Philöe animated in a peculiar degree the enthusiasm of the present traveller; and his opportunity of exploring it was superior to that which Norden enjoyed, who recites the unfavourable circumstances which obstructed his endeavours. His plan of the island and of the site of the ruins is evidently erroneous. We transcribe M. Denon's account:

'The next day was the finest to me of my whole travels: I possessed seven or eight monuments in the space of six hundred yards, and could examine them quite at my ease, for I had not by my side any of those impatient companions who always think they have seen enough, and are constantly pressing you to go to some other object, nor had I in my ears the beating of drums as a signal to muster, or to march, nor Arabs nor peasants to torment me; I was alone in full leisure, and could make my drawings without interruption. This was my sixth visit to Philöe; the five first I had employed in taking views of the shores of the vicinity.

'As soon as I could set foot in the island, I began first by going over all the inner part, to take a general survey of the various monuments, and to form a kind of topographical chart containing the island, the course of the river, and the adjacent characteristic scenery. I found a convincing proof that this group of monuments had been constructed at different periods, by several nations, and had belonged to different forms of religious worship: and the union of these various edifices, each of them in itself regular, and crowded together in this narrow spot, formed an irregular group of most picturesque and magnificent objects. I could here distinguish eight sanctuaries or separate temple of different dimensions, built at various times, and the limits of eac had been respected in the construction of the succeeding ones, whic had impaired the regularity of the whole.'—[*Aikin.*]

' This island of Philöe (or Philœ) lies north-east and south-west, i an elbow of the river; it is about three hundred toises long by one hundred and twenty wide. It is almost entirely covered with edifices. Th south-west of its upper part is occupied by a fine and very picturesqu rock, the sterile and wild aspect of which seems to add to its magnificence, and set off the regular lines of the architecture of its temples

' That of these temples which must be esteemed the principal, an a general idea of which has already been given, is of the peripterou class. The capitals are surmounted by a quadruple head of Isis Adjoining, is a gallery, two hundred and fifty French feet in length with well sculptured columns, almost all the capitals of which diffe from each other. A large and magnificent door of the temple is flanked by two moles in talus, each of forty-seven feet in width, and twenty-two in thickness: these are bordered by a torus, and surmounted by a gorge. The pannels are covered with two ranks of gigantic hieroglyphics, already described. One of four figures of priests which are on the back of the edifice, carries a bark, in which is an emblem similar to that in the *low*-relief on the temple of Elephantina. On the two sides of the door there have been small obelisks in granite, of the height of eighteen feet, covered with hieroglyphics, very chastely sculptured; and before these were two sphinxes of seven feet in length, all of which are prostrate.

' Another court of eighty feet in length, by forty-five in width, is flanked by two columniated galleries, behind which, on the right, is a series of cells of ten feet in depth, and on the left, a private edifice, composed of two porticoes, and three chambers of various dimensions, communicating with each other, and opening into the porticoes. This is the only edifice of the kind which M. Denon ever met with in Egypt; it had more light than usual; it might have been believed to have been a principal apartment; its execution was very elaborate, and its effect highly picturesque. The smallest of the sanctuaries is supported, in a similar manner, by two other moles in talus, of a size one third of that of the former.

' Before the enclosed part of the temple there is an open portico, decorated with ten columns and eight pilasters of four feet diameter, as magnificent as elegant; the columns and the walls are covered with hieroglyphical pictures, sculptured on the mass, finished with stucco, and painted. The portico, and the covered parts of the top are sculptured and painted with astronomical pictures, or with white stars upon a blue ground. The aperture produces a fine light, and one of the most beautiful architectural effects: an exact picture, executed in the natural colours, would be as striking and as agreeable as it would be novel and curious; the relief of the architecture and sculpture giving shadows to the flat tints of the painting, completes its projections; it assumes a harmony and magnificence which excites astonishment.

' Te

is portico succeeds a temple of sixty feet in depth by thirty
divided lengthwise into four chambers, communicating by
, successively diminishing in height; the first seven feet by
econd six by four, the third five by six, and the fourth four
It is very difficult to form an idea of the use of these cham-
are at once very long, very lofty, very narrow, very rich,
ark. In the furthermost, there is still an altar or a pedestal,
, and, in the left corner, a sort of tabernacle or monolite
aring, as a decoration, the door of a temple of seven feet
by three in width, and two feet eight inches in depth, of
ock of granite. There are still in the stone the holes in
: inserted the hinges of the door, which was three feet in
one foot six inches in width: a similar tabernacle is in an-
iber.

tabernacles were doubtlessly destined to enclose, either the
ble furniture of the temple, or the emblem of the god itself:
, the emblem could only be a reptile or bird, and the door
been a grate, to give air to the animal, if it were a living
Denon has subsequently found, upon the clothing of a
hich has long been in the library of the French academy,
has since past into that of the Institute, the representation
hese little temples, with a door grated and shut, another
oor open, a bird within the temple, and a man giving it
another, in which the keeper of the birds is watching them
take the air: a discovery which appears to leave no doubt
se of these monolite sanctuaries.

this series of edifices, the most considerable is the long
ico, of sixty-four feet by forty-four, with four columns in
five on the side. This edifice has never been finished. Its
the most ingeniously composed, and the best executed,
Denon saw in Egypt. The lotus is entwined with infinite
ng the volutes of the Iönic and Composite capital. The
ornament which prevails throughout this edifice.
: south of the island, its soil is cultivated and abundant.
th, is another island, much larger than Philoë, and beset
of granite; in a valley, among some palm-trees, is a sanc-
very ruinous condition: four columns, with very elegant
rm its portico.' [*Kendal.*]

of the island, with the sites of the public edifices,
d *.

mised our readers a battle-piece; and M. Denon
nts us with one which exhibits an action sufficiently
d bloody to interest the most languid curiosity. The
ad captured the French flotilla on the Nile, and had
hed themselves and the Mamelukes with artillery.
sion of strength emboldened them to venture on the

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* This should be compared with Norden's map.

battle of Benhute, which was fought on both sides with th most desperate courage:

‘ Having dislodged the infantry of our enemy from the secon village, we came to a small plain before Benhute, where we kne that the greater body of the enemy was entrenched, and to which a the fugitives had retired. We expected to have a bloody battle, bu not to be cannonaded in form by a battery which fired both grap and bullets, which reached our square, and even went beyond us. now saw death close at my side; in the short time of ten minute that we stopped, three persons were killed whilst I was speaking t them. I dared no longer to speak to any one, for the last wa struck by a ball, which we both saw coming up ploughing the groun before it, and appearing to be almost spent. My friend lifted up hi foot to let it pass him, when a sudden leap of the ball struck him o the heel, and tore the muscles of his leg, making a wound which th next day proved fatal to this young officer, as we wanted the necessar instruments for amputation.

‘ We fancied that, according to the custom of the country, thei unmounted pieces were capable but of one direction: we were, however, not a little surprised, on perceiving that their balls followed ou movements, so as to oblige us to quicken our pace in posting ourselves in front of the village, where we maintained the action, whil the carabiniers and chasseurs proceeded to turn their battery, and to carry it at the bayonet's point. The moment the drums beat to charge, the Mamelukes came forward to the attack of our carabiniers, who, after having received them with a discharge of musketry by which they were repulsed, stormed and carried the battery, making a general massacre of all those who served the guns. These gun were French; and were found on inspection to have belonged to th *Italie*, the commodore's bark of our flotilla. We were in hopes tha after this important capture the battle would terminate, by the dispersion or flight of the army of Meccans: a part of this army, however, maintained its ground for a considerable time in a small gro of palm-trees; while the other part, which was still more numerou made a kind of retreat, which we dared not harass, since, whenev we passed beyond the thickets and enclosed grounds to make a rapi movement, the Mamelukes, by whom we were constantly flanked, ha it in their power to attack and drive us back. It was therefore nece sary to march in order of battle, and with the troops formed to r ceive them. During six hours we had been unceasingly engaged wit an enemy, undisciplined it is true, but brave, fanatic, and of tenfol our number, who attacked with fury and made an obstinate resi ance, never retreating unless in a body, insomuch that it became necessary to cut off in detail the detachments as they advanced. Wor out, and panting with the extreme heat, we stopped a moment t take breath. We were utterly destitute of water, of which we nev had stood so much in need. I recollect finding, in the heat of th action, a jug of water at the extremity of a wall, and that, not having time to drink, I poured the water on my bosom, to allay th burning heat by which I was tormented.

us

'So long as our enemies kept possession of their batteries, they retreated confidently, having fresh supplies of men on whom to depend. We were then of opinion that it was their intention to bring us, by a feigned retreat, within the reach of these batteries. But when they had lost them, we considered that, as the small wood to which they had retreated was become their last and only point of defence, they would either try the chance of a decisive action, or would swim across the Nile, or, lastly, would join the Mamelukes, and disappear with them, which it was impossible for us to prevent. On drawing near to the wood, we perceived, however, that it contained a large village, with a fortress belonging to the Mamelukes, provided with bastions and battlements, the approach to which was rendered still more difficult, as the enemy were provided with arms and ammunition of every description, which we found to have belonged to us, both by the distance the balls were sent, and by the balls themselves. We were employed for upwards of two hours in attacking this fortress on every side, without being able to find any point from which the enemy did not assail us successfully. We had sixty men killed, and as many wounded. On the approach of night we set fire to the houses in the vicinity, took possession of a mosque, cut off the enemy's retreat by the Nile, and endeavoured to mount afresh the guns we had recaptured.'—

'At day-break we began to batter the fortress with a view of making a breach: as it was, however, constructed of unbaked bricks, each bullet simply made a hole, without bringing down any part of the building. The flames at the same time made no progress on account of the court-yards which separated the principal building from the circumvallation. At nine in the morning the Mamelukes advanced with their camels, as if with a view to throw succours into the place. A party was sent out against them, and they retreated after a slight resistance. General Beliard, perceiving that the result of the palliative means which had hitherto been employed had been a loss of time and of men, gave orders for an assault, which was given and received with unexampled valour. The first circumvallation was opened under the enemy's fire; and, notwithstanding the incessant discharges of musketry of the besieged, by whom a sortie was made, combustible matters were introduced which annoyed them in their retreat. One of their magazines blew up, and the flames extended themselves in every direction. As they were without water, they extinguished the fire with their feet and hands, and even endeavoured to smother it by throwing themselves on it. They were seen, black and naked, running through the flames, and resembling so many devils in hell: I could not view them without an emotion of horror blended with admiration. Intervals of tranquillity succeeded, during which a solitary voice was heard, which was answered by sacred hymns and warlike shouts. They then rushed on us from all sides, notwithstanding the certainty of death.

'Towards the close of the evening we stormed; and this operation was long and terrible. Twice we penetrated into the interior of the fortress, and twice we were driven from thence. I was not so much terrified by the losses we sustained, as by the reflection, that

we had fresh efforts to make against an enemy whom we could n
intimidate. I knew besides, that we were reduced to our last box
cartridges.'—

' Painful duties succeeded to the dangers of the combat. V
heard the cries of the wounded, to whom we had no remedies
administer, and on whom we could not perform the most urgent op
rations for want of instruments. Our losses in men had been ve
considerable, and we had still many enemies to subdue. The nece
sity of sparing our gallant troops made us substitute to an attack l
storm the expedient of setting fire to the enemy's buildings. F
this purpose two fires were kindled; posts were stationed at all th
avenues; and these posts were relieved from time to time to rend
the duty less severe.'—

' At day break our troops entered by the breaches the fire ha
made, and put to the sword those who, notwithstanding they we
half roasted alive, still offered a resistance. One of them, who ap
peared to be a chief, was brought to the general. He was in s
swollen a state, that in endeavouring to stoop to seat himself, hi
skin cracked in every part. "If," said he, "I am brought hither to
be killed, I beg that you will hasten to put me out of my misery."
He was accompanied by a slave, who regarded his master with s
deep an expression of grief, that I felt an esteem both for one and th
other. The dangers by which this slave was surrounded could no
draw aside for a moment his affectionate concern for his master. H
lived for him alone: he viewed him; and could see no other object
What looks! how tender and how deep a melancholy! How goo
must he have been, who was thus cherished by his slave! Howeve
deplorable his lot, I could not help envying him who was thus be
loved.' [*Aikin.*]

The ruins of Kous, of the temples of Karnac, Luxor, &c
engage our traveller's attention, but we must pass them wit
as much rapidity as if we ourselves had Murad-Bey at ou
heels.

M. Denon, returning in haste through Thebes, thus express
himself respecting the extent of the ground covered by the re
mains of antient edifices, and their original use:

' I had not time to measure by rule the extent of ground occupie
by these buildings, but I found repeatedly that twenty-five minute
were required to encompass them on full trot. The passage throug
the circumvallation or exterior wall was by six gates that yet remai
three of which were preceded by avenues of sphinxes: within th
circuit was contained not only the great temple, but three others en
tirely distinct from it, having each its own gates, porticoes, court
avenues, and boundary wall.—What was their use? Were the
temples or palaces? Were their sovereigns lodged in the portico
of the temples, or were their palaces similar in construction to th
sacred edifices; or, perhaps, from their superior lightness, unable t
resist the injuries of time? It is at least obvious, that if they di
really inhabit these buildings, which from their distribution may b

regard

regarded as dependencies of the great temple, their accommodations were by no means to be envied. Large courts with open galleries, and porticoes formed by narrow intercolumniations, could not be very pleasant to live in: the few chambers that there are, of small dimensions, destitute of air and light, and covered with pious allegories, were but little calculated to attract the eye or please the imagination. Another objection is, that some of these dark chambers contained little tabernacles, in which. no doubt, were inclosed either the figure of the divinity or the particular animal emblematical of it, or the sacred treasure; and to any of these none but the priests would be admitted. Probably, therefore, the vast circuit of these buildings was occupied by numerous colleges of priests, the depositories of the science, the power, and the influence of the country.' [*Aikin.*]

Revisiting Tintyra, and taking possession of the great temple in all the plenitude of repose and quiet, with a guard of thirty men, M. Denon employed himself in copying the hieroglyphics, which are here exhibited in several plates. In one of these we find the delineation of an antient zodiac, which indicates the Chaldaic origin of Egyptian science.

'The following are among the hieroglyphics on this temple: a sculpture in the little temple which is behind the greater, represents a figure that appears to bear a club, on which is a serpent, and which appears ready to crush the little Orus, who is succoured by the emblem of Isis, the horns of a cow, the measure of the Nile, signifying the inundation, which saves the earth from the attempts of Typhon, that is, the wind of the desert: on the walls of the great temple, one of the two thousand sculptures represents Orus offering an oblation to Isis and Osiris or the earth returning thanks for the benefactions of the heavens: on the portico, is a sculptured temple with a pediment; it has been said that, on account of the general absence of rain in Egypt, no pitched roofs have belonged to the architecture of that country; the representation of this pedimented temple is held by a person who is in the act of making an offering: this therefore was a votive temple, an Egyptian temple, as may be judged from its door, and possibly one erected in a country remote from Egypt: with respect to the fourteen barks bearing fourteen balls or disks, it is possible that they signify the lunar months: the number fourteen was consecrated: on the frize of the door which is under the portico of Apollinopolis Magna, at Edfù, there are fourteen divinities, ready to ascend fourteen empty steps which terminate at an astronomical sign, consisting of an eye on the prow of a vessel in the disk of the moon, sustained by a prop terminating in a flower of the lotus, behind which is a little divinity; the same number of steps, the same number of divinities, the same sign, and the same little god are sculptured on each extremity of the cieling of the portico of Tintyra, and on the steps of the stairs, which ascend from the plat-form of the cella to the platform of the portico: in the low-relief of Apollinopolis the figures have their legs engaged; in that of Tintyra they are alternately the figures of men, and the figures of women: in the picture which occupies one half of the cieling of the third chamber of the apartment which is on the top of the great temple, are three figures of women, which, in a singular manner, stretch out their arms to reach a little figure of Osiris; from the arms which proceed from their brain, it appears that the Egyptians had conventional signs by which they expressed certain things, and to which they made the most sacred laws of nature and of art subservient; that the state of the arts among them must not be judged of from their emblematic figures; that they had an art apart, but that it was held within limits, and bound to consecrated purposes, by rules exceedingly severe; whence it has happened that their productions of unconfined genius are so rare, that, before the French expedition, it was not known that they existed: on the cieling of the chamber parallel to that which contains the zodiac, is a picture containing the figure of a woman of thirty feet in height, and which possibly represents the year, a conjecture which is supported by the figures on her arms and her body; here is a globe with legs, which may signify the course of the earth, and the revolution of the year; the same globe passing from the figure of the sun to another figure may be the earth between day and night; a bent figure in a globe between a man and a woman may be that of the earth, which presents one side to the day, while it presents the contrary to night, and the man and woman may be Osiris and Isis, who superintend and regulate its movements; but all this is conjecture, the whole may be something very different: the writing which is about it, once understood, would probably discover the truth: beneath the woman is a figure which turns its feet over its head, and that possibly signifies the earth, which turns on its own axis; on each extended hand of this figure is a disk, containing the figure of Osiris, or the sun at the tropics, approaching each pole in the progress of the year; and from the figure project rays, bearing divisions of the year, and its influences on the earth; in fact, a sort of almanac.

' It is very difficult to conceive the purpose of this little apartment, the cielings of the several chambers of which we have just described: it may have been an oratory, an observatory, a sanctuary, or a place of residence: to judge from the subjects with which it is sculptured, it might be believed to have been a place of study, sacred to astronomy, or, perhaps it was wholly devoted to the sepulture of some illustrious personage, decorated with the discoveries which resulted from the studies of his life: it is entered by a little door, which opens into an apartment without a cover, and which has the appearance of an enclosed court, adorned with the same labour as the other parts; against the lateral wall of the right chamber is represented a couched mummy, under which is a long inscription; a door from the court enters into the chamber on the cieling of which is the planisphere, and which is illuminated by two large casement windows; the adjoining chamber is almost entirely dark, receiving light only by its door, which opens from the first chamber.' [*Kendal.*]

In traversing the tombs of the kings of Thebes, the author was not only gratified by a sight of the beautiful paintings and sculptures within them, but had the singular felicity of discovering an antient manuscript in the covering of a mummy.

Having observed figures on the walls in the act of writing, he says;

'The Egyptians, it appears then, had books; the famous *toth* then, was a book, and not pannels of inscriptions, sculptured upon walls, as it has hitherto remained in question. I could not forbear to flatter myself with the thought that I was the first who had made this important discovery; but much more when, a few hours after, I was furnished with the proof of my discovery by the possession of a manuscript itself, which I found in the hand of a superb mummy which was brought me: he must be highly inquisitive, an amateur, and a traveller, who can appreciate the whole extent of such an enjoyment. I felt that I turned pale; I was disposed to quarrel with those who, in spite of my intreaties, had violated the integrity of this mummy, when I perceived, in its right hand, and under its left arm, the manuscript roll of papyrus which, but for this violation, I should never have seen: my voice failed me; I blessed the avarice of the Arabs, and still more the accident that had procured me this good fortune; so great was my fear of destroying it, that I knew not what to do with my treasure; I was afraid to touch this book, the most antient of books at this day known; I dared confide it to no person, deposit it no where; all the cotton of the quilt that served me for a bed did not seem sufficient to embalm it with sufficient softness.' [*Kendal.*]

To the plate giving a fac-simile of the MS., the following remarks are subjoined:

'The first observation which we shall make upon this relic of antiquity is, that the papyrus on which it is written is prepared in the same way as that of the Greeks and Romans; that is to say, of two layers of the medulla of this plant glued to each other, with the fibres made to cross, to give more consistence to the leaf. It may also be seen that the writing goes from right to left, beginning at the top of the page.

'The design here given is an offering made by a priest to Isis in the form of a cow; her udder is very apparent; she is dressed like the human figures representing this deity, and has a kind of yoke about her neck, which I have also met with around the god Apis, in an historical bas-relief in the temple of Medinet Abu, at Thebes. The raised frame before the figure of Isis in the present subject is perhaps an altar, and both are standing on a kind of portico, beneath which, a mummy reclining forms a figure like that which I have conjectured to be Nature in a dormant state. Above the cow is a disk, whence a serpent is descending; the priest is clothed in a white striped tunic, which covers his body from his loins down to the mid-leg; it is fastened by straps, passing round his right shoulder, which otherwise is as naked as his arms; on his head he has a close-fitting cap, which looks somewhat like a helmet, and is rounded off at the ears, leaving them bare: he holds in his hand a vase, containing two species of flowers, which I have often seen without being able to make out what they are. Above the figures is an inscription composed of seven vertical and four horizontal lines: the writing is here different from the rest of the manuscript, of which this is a part, and the characters appear to be infinitely varied and numerous; some of the emblematical figures, met with in other places, may be here distinguished, such as the serpent, the eye, and birds; but these are mixed with others that seem to be purely conventional, and exhibit no kind of image.

'In copying the whole manuscript I have found the return of entire phrases, and particular characters, so often repeated, that they can be only articles, conjunctions, or auxiliary verbs: from these, it would be easy for those persons who devote themselves to this kind of study, to compose alphabets, or groups of words, which may assist in the general explanation; and a single one of these manuscripts would furnish the whole of the set of characters, if each character only expressed a single letter.

'This manuscript belongs to the First Consul, who has been pleased to allow me the use of it.' [*Aikin.*]

Shortly after this discovery, M. Denon justifies a little address which he employed to effect some delay, by telling us '*that he was going to quit Egypt for ever*:' but it does not appear that he had *then* any knowlege of the scheme of Bonaparte's return to Europe. He soon, however, bends his course towards Cairo; whence he proceeds, after the defeat of the Turkish army at Aboukir, to Alexandria; embarks for Europe with Bonaparte; and arrives safely at Frejus. The travels thus conclude:

'Here terminates my journal; but the reader must bear with me a little longer, while I make a concluding observation on the form and object of this work.

'When I quitted Alexandria, the members of the Institute were yet at Cairo; and on my arrival in France, I was not certain whether they would be able to accomplish their journey into Upper Egypt, as Bonaparte had ordered before his departure: the events of war might have interrupted the progress of that learned society, or at least prevent them from sending to France the valuable fruits of their labours: in that case I should have been the only one qualified to write on that country, especially as I had made a great multitude of drawings, which exhibited, not only the face of the country, but often represented some of the most interesting expeditions of the war. I could not, therefore, without a kind of injustice, deprive my fellow-citizens of the copious fruits of my researches, and my laborious travels, so I resolved to publish them.

'I then thought it proper to add to my journal a few critical digressions on the antiquities, and some remarks on the travellers who had preceded me, and with this intention I had requested some men of learning to supply notes to the most interesting of the objects which I had made drawings of; but no sooner had I been informed that the Institute of Cairo had accomplished their journey in the calm of peace; that the members had known no bounds to their ardent research, except the limits assigned by the chief of division, who accompanied them; that they had returned, loaden with an immense booty; and that the government, after having protected their journey,

ney, had resolved, with its accustomed munificence, to defray the expence of publishing a collection so valuable in every respect; I no longer thought of adhering to a plan that others would necessarily execute much better than myself. Reduced to my own feeble means, how could I presume to measure my labours with those of a whole society, to publish hypotheses where they will present certainty? I have, therefore, struck out from my journal all that I had there hazarded of critical research; I have resumed my light infantry uniform, and my post in the advanced guard, reserving for myself only the claim of having picketed out a path for those who were to follow; and thus, even by my errors, be of some use to the editors of the great work.

'For my own part, I shall esteem myself happy, if, by my zeal and enthusiasm, I have succeeded in giving my readers an idea of a country so important in itself, and in the various recollections that are associated with it; if I have been able to pourtray with accuracy, its characteristic forms, colour, and general appearance; and if, as an eye-witness, I have described with interest the details of an extended and singular campaign, which formed a prominent feature in the vast conception of this celebrated expedition; if I have attained this object, I shall be indebted for it to the advantage of describing and delineating every thing immediately from nature.' [*Aikin.*]

From this account, it is evident that the French made no discovery of any new stupendous monument of antient art in Egypt; and that they did not advance up the Nile so far as former travellers have penetrated. Though Norden passed not quite twelve months in Egypt, during which he was detained nearly four months at Cairo by illness, he extended his researches and made charts of the Nile as far as Derri in Nubia, where insurmountable obstacles arrested his progress. In general, Denon confirms the accounts of Pocock and Norden; and having more opportunities for minute examination in some places, he has added to their details. He has not, however, stated our obligations to other travellers, but, with a French flourish, speaks of himself as 'engaged in travelling through a country which was *known to Europe by name only.*' He has omitted also to quote the numerous passages in antient authors, which relate to the same objects which he describes.

With respect to the merits of the two translations before us, the palm certainly belongs to Mr. Aikin; who, notwithstanding many marks of haste, has performed his task with much more fidelity and elegance than Mr. Kendal. The object of the latter being cheapness, he has copied very few and none of the most material plates which enrich the original work, and which constitute its grand characteristic; though, as he was unwilling that his readers should lose the explanations which are subjoined to the plates of Denon, he has interwoven them with the narrative. So far, this was judicious: but we think

that he should have preserved the original form of the jou
and not have exhibited the author, in his own work, in
third person.—Mr. Aikin allows M. Denon to speak thro
out in the first person, has copied most of the plates, and
given the explanations at the end, as in the original.
only liberties which he has taken consist in breaking the
rative into chapters and subjoining head-titles for the be
of easy consultation, for which we give him our thanks.

In a few instances, Mr. Kendal may have been more happy
Mr. Aikin, but his inferiority must be manifest by a general c
parison. Not being an artist, he talks of *ranks* of colun
of the *coating* instead of the *facing* of a pyramid, and ren
bas-relief *low*-relief, while the word *chambranles* (fran
remains untranslated. In the account of the sitting stat
the passage which Mr. Aikin has written, 'a severity of
and a straitness of position;' Mr. K. has translated 'the s
was rugged as the attitude was correct.' He also abound
inelegancies and vulgarism: he talks of night-fall, of *anani*
of famishing the country, of animals following by *parcels*,
a *mortis*, of a large number of *moes*, of perquisitions, of f
stone which has the *equality* (he means *smoothness*) of mar
of *monolite* (monolithic) temples, of destruction having ta
place *at* the hands of man, of *most nicest* distinctions, &c.

The dissonances of the two translations are not only suc
respect style and decoration: we find the difference of a da
the dates of the journal; where one translates *four miles*, the o
has *two leagues*; where one has *twenty*, the other has *thirty* m
what Mr. K. renders *the wall of the city*, Mr. A. translates *th*
woman's wall; and the words which the former translates
and *reeds*, the latter renders *ear-holes* and *rushes*, &c.—Mr.
historical account of the Invasion of Egypt by the French,
his Illustration of the Map of Upper and Lower Egypt, are
ful additions to the French work.

The splendid original publication of M. Denon consist
an immense folio, containing upwards of three hundred p
of letter-press, and a separate volume consisting of one hun
and forty-one plates, beautifully engraven.

ART. XII. *Some Account of the Cathedral Church of Durham:* i
trative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Build
Imperial Folio. 5l. 5s. in Sheets. White, Robson, &c.

ON former occasions, we have so fully expressed our ap
on of the plan here prosecuted by the Society of A
hat, were we now to offer any praise on the gen
the magnificent undertaking of which the publica
be

before us forms the 4th Number of the Series, we should unnecessarily repeat our observations. We shall therefore content ourselves with referring to our review of the accounts of St. Stephen's Chapel, of Exeter and of Bath Cathedral Churches, (see M. R. vol. xx. p. 130, vol. xxxii. p. 421.—p. 426, N. S.) and proceed to notice the historical and explanatory remarks prefixed to the beautiful plates, containing the plans, elevations, and sections of the noble Cathedral of Durham.

The author of the prefatory account considers the style of building adopted by the Norman conquerors, as a species of architecture which may properly be denominated national; hence he wishes to discard the word *Gothic*, as applied to the Architecture of England from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century, and proposes to substitute in its room the more appropriate term of *English*. All who are acquainted with the subject must admit the propriety of such a substitution: but, when words have been sanctioned by long use, it is difficult to make them give place to others, though more accurate and significant. The Italians, as it is here remarked, applied the expression of "*la maniera gotica*" in contempt to all the works of art of the middle ages; and Sir Christopher Wren, borrowing the epithet from them, gave it general currency among his countrymen. It is now so generally employed, when speaking of the style of architecture prevailing in all our venerable sacred structures, that the word *gothic* seems likely to maintain its ground; though the beauty and striking effect of the edifices constructed in this style as much prevent us from using it in contempt, as our knowlege of its origin secures us from attributing it to the Goths.

Some have supposed that this mode of building is *Saracenic*, and that the mad project of the crusade contributed to our improvement in architecture. Conjecture will be applied in default of positive testimony; and, as the writers of the age in which our most noble religious edifices were erected have left us, in a great measure, in the dark respecting the history of this branch of the arts, various opinions will be formed respecting its source. 'There is very little doubt, (we are here told in a note,) that the light and elegant style of building, whose principal and characteristic feature is the high pointed arch struck from two centres, was invented in this country.' The testimony of other countries, indeed, of which the national traditions ascribe their most beautiful churches to English artists, gives weight to the assertion; and certain it is that this style was here brought to the highest state of perfection.

A great taste for building was introduced into and universally prevailed in this island under the Norman dynasty, of which we have at this day the most ample proofs. 'We cannot without wonder consider the immense buildings, both ecclesiastical and civil, erected in this country, within a century and an half after the Norman conquest; and it is no exaggeration to assert that the aggregate of Cathedrals, Abbeys and Castles, raised in England in that period, far exceeds the mass of public edifices erected in any country whatever within the same time, since the fall of the Roman Empire.'

Soon after the conquest, the foundations of the Cathedral of Durham were laid. Bishop William de Carilepho began the building in the reign of William Rufus, and it was continued, if not finished, by his successor Ranulf Flambard; whose talents for architecture had been previously evinced by the erection of the collegiate church of Christchurch, Hants. The form of this Cathedral, constructed in the most massive style of Norman architecture, was a long cross, with two turrets at the west end, and between them a large and richly ornamented arched door; the eastern end probably terminating in a semicircular form. 'The side ailes, both of the nave and choir, were vaulted with semicircular arches, groined, and the ribs of the groins carved; but the nave and choir were open to the timber roof.'

Additions were made to the original church under subsequent bishops: but it still remains a perfect specimen of Norman architecture; and by the improvements which it underwent, we are at length presented with 'a most instructive series of examples, illustrative of the gradual change of style which took place during the reigns of the first three Henrys, till by degrees the pointed arch had completely superseded the semicircle; and the heavy clusters of the Norman pillars had been polished into the light shafts of the early English.'

After these general observations, the account proceeds to state the several additions and improvements, in the order in which they took place. The first addition made to the original church was the western chapel, called the Galilee; the second was the chapel at the east end, named the Chapel of the Nine Altars: but, as we cannot minutely follow the author in his history of this Cathedral, we shall avail ourselves, for the sake of our readers, of the table at the end of the article, giving at one view the dates of the different parts of the church, as far as they can with any probability be ascertained; together with the names of the Bishops, &c. to whom the several works are ascribed. The authorities of Godwin and Hutchinson have been followed.

		A.D.	Bishops.	
'William I.	15	1080	Wm. de St. Carilepho	Began the Cathedral in 1093.
William II.	13	1099	Ranulf Flambard	Finished the wall, and transferred St. Cuthbert.
Henry I.	34	1133	Galfrid Rufus	Built the Chapter House.
Stephen	19	1153	Hugh Pudsey	Built the Galilee.
Henry III.	12	1228	Richard Poore	Vaulted the Nave and began the Nine Altars.
	25	1241	Nicholas Farnham	Continued the work and built the Lantern.
	34	1249	Walter Kirkham	Built the Belfry.
Edward I.	12	1283	Anthony Beak	Vaulted the Choir. Built the Vestry.
Edward III.	19	1345	Thomas Hatfield	Made Great West Window and North Transept ditto.
Richard II.	4	1381	John Fordham,	Finished the Altar-screen.
	11	1388	Walter Skyrlaw	Built the Cloisters. Repaired the Galilee.
Henry IV.	7	1406	Thomas Langley	
Henry VII.	10	1494	Richard Fox	Restored the North Window.'

Some of the Priors assisted in these holy works, but we have been obliged to omit their names.

Protestantism was not propitious to the magnificence and splendour which this Cathedral derived from the zeal of its successive Catholic bishops. The Reformation robbed it of its shrines: in Elizabeth's reign, its monuments were defaced by Dean Wittingham, a rigid Calvinist; and under the Protectorate, it suffered much: but it seems to have been most injured, externally at least, by repairs conducted without judgment or taste. Whether owing to the funds for its sustentation being now found to be insufficient, or whether it be thought unnecessary to uphold every part of this immense pile, we know not: but we are informed of schemes of demolition. Should these diminutions be carried into effect, against which as admirers of our sacred edifices we protest, we have only to hope that they may be executed under the direction of architects distinguished for their knowlege of what is called the Gothic style.

The plates exhibit,—I. A large Plan of the Cathedral Church at Durham, and the Site of the adjoining buildings. II. Elevation of the West Front. III. Elevation of the North Door. IV. Section of the Cathedral from East to West, presenting the South Side. V. Elevation to a larger Scale of the First and Second Divisions, from the Great Centre Tower, of the South Side of the Nave of the Cathedral. VI. Elevation to a larger Scale of the Second and Third Divisions from the North End of the Chapel of the Nine Altars, as it appeared in 1795. VII. Elevation of the Episcopal Throne and Monument of Thomas Hatfield, situated on the South Side of the Choir of the Cathedral, as it appeared in 1795. VIII. Elevation of the Eastern Front of the Screen of the High Altar. IX. Elevation of two Doors in the Cathedral, with their Plans. X. Parts of the Cathedral and its Dependencies on a large Scale.—To the whole is prefixed an engraved title page;—and all the plates are engraven by Basire from Drawings made by Mr. John Carter.

In giving the Elevations of this Cathedral, Mr. Carter has not uniformly copied its present appearance, which in some instances has been injudiciously modernized, but has restored the antient architecture, by the help of some old engravings; thus doing justice to the original design, and making his work a faithful delineation of the English style during the successive periods of its erection.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1802.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *The British Parnassus*, at the Close of the 18th Century; A Poem in Four Cantos. By Alexander Thomson, Author of *Whist, the Paradise of Taste*, &c. 4to. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co.

In this species of burlesque composition, the author considers himself as intitled to great latitude in the expressions and rhymes. According to our opinion, he is not intitled to more than he has taken: but, as he apprizes his readers of this circumstance, it will be scarcely necessary for us to trouble them with many examples. The plan of the work is to enumerate, in terms of appropriate commendation, the names and productions of our poets from the days of Dryden to those of Peter Pindar and his contemporaries.—As we have had several occasions of giving our sentiments on the productions of Mr. Thomson *, we shall now merely select a specimen from his *Parnassus*, in which the reader will see Peter Pindar's merits decided, and at the first bracket will observe an instance of the *liberty* of the Versification:

‘ Let all the gay Trophies we thus have survey'd,
Be now put together; then let them be weigh'd
In the opposite scale with your old Comic feast,
Which if they outweigh not, they'll balance at least.

‘ From Comedy's Hall is an easy transition,
To the Closet of Satire, and GARTH the Physician;
For on him, and the Medical Squib which he penn'd,
Your cause in this quarter seems all to depend;
Whilst I, for one single unseconded thing,
A number of capital pieces can bring.

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* See M. R. vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 149.

'It is true, that the interval now is so long [*],
Since the BLUNDERHEADS figur'd in ANSTEY's gay Song,
Since the pleasures of BATH with such spirit he sung,
And the numbers so merrily danc'd on his tongue,
Since which he has ventur'd no second display,
That he scarcely belongs to the Corps of To-day.

'But have you not him, who (perhaps on a Monday),
Long ago gave a treat of his nice SALMAGUNDI,
And who lately, on some other day of the week,
Serv'd up TOPSY-TURVY, with BUBBLE AND SQUEAK?

'And have you not PINDAR, that wonderful PETER,
Unparallell'd master of ludicrous metre;
From whose fanciful brain, inexhaustibly strong,
Such torrents have gush'd of Satirical Song?
Whether he, as at first, your Academy enters,
And offers his jeering advice to the Painters:
Or with Ridicule's caustic attempts to reduce
The egotist tumours of BOZZY and BRUCE;
Or, by boiling proof taught, with SIR JOSEPH BANKS sees,
How wide the distinction 'twixt Lobsters and Fleas [†];
Or by means of the slender Machine of a Louse,
With murmurs and rage fills a certain Great House;
Or presages MACARTNEY's disgrace and disaster,
At the Court of great CHINA's imperial Master;
Or, beyond all the rest, with unparallell'd glee,
The Royal Visitors gives us to see,
In their progress so sage through WHITBREAD's Brewery [‡].

'You said, and I mean not to prove you a liar,
That FONTAINE in his Tales was not much above PRIOR [§];
But PETER's the man, who in arch, comic vein,
And dryness of humour, surpasses FONTAINE;
Nor with so rare a talent his eulogy ends,
But through all composition's wide circle extends.
How rich is that exquisite grace which belongs
To his tender effusions, and amorous songs!
How few are those strains which in Pathos surpass
His mournful lament for the death of his Ass!
What Ode of its size so much fancy displays,
As that which the GLOW-WORM so sweetly pourtrays!

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[*] The entertaining Letters of the New Bath Guide are dated
arly as 1766; another production of the same kind, the Election
l, belongs also to Anstey; since which the Humorous Muse of
: gentleman, to the regret of all his readers, has been totally
nt.'

[†] His piece on this subject concludes with the following singular
ism:

'Fleas are not Lobsters, d——n their souls.'

[‡] Brewery, a Poetical word for a Brewhouse.'

[§] Vide Canto I. 165.'

Or who but a dull and insensible Vandal,
Admires not the lofty address to his Candle?
I deem, that since SHAKSPEARE you have not possess'd
Such a Bard, by the whole of the Muses caress'd;
A writer like PINDAR, whose versatile wit
Such opposite subjects can equally fit,
And who clothes in the same easy mantle of Rhyme,
Both the lowest of Fun and the highest sublime:
But these talents, alas! upon themes of a day,
Too often by far have been quite thrown away.
Awake, thou great Spirit, and leave meaner things*,
With such perishing objects as Painters and Kings;
Learn at last, for the sake of true Poetry's cause,
To despise present profit, and present applause;
Let Int'rest no more, with its grovelling force,
Be the Pole-star that guides thy poetical course;
But before Age arrive to extinguish thy fire,
Let some noble subject resound from thy Lyre;
Nor foolishly trust, for thy whole reputation,
To structures thus built on a sandy foundation,
Which will soon stand in need of complete Annotation.'

Mr. T. again makes his appearance, in the next article.

Art. 14. *Sonnets, Odes, and Elegies.* By Alexander Thomson, Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

This prolific author may be justly allowed to possess a talent for versification. The productions of his muse are numerous, and his lines are generally smooth and easy. Often, indeed, by a slight transposition, they would relapse into prose; while on the contrary true poetry will always retain its native force and beauty, even when the charms of measure are withdrawn.—We do not wish to insinuate that there is no poetry in this volume: but, if we freely speak our opinion, we esteem the sentiments more than the poetry. Some expressions occur, which require to be revised, although we shall not trouble our readers by pointing them out; and in other places we observe a promiscuous use of *thee* and *you*, which, though examples may be found in our poets, must never be allowed. We give one sonnet as a specimen of the whole:

' Why should our little life be vainly spent,
  In all the vile pursuits of sordid gain;
Since Indian treasures cannot yield content,
  Nor regal pow'r the flight of Time restrain?

' For ends of higher aim were mortals sent,
  To pace a while this weary world of pain;
And souls like theirs, on nobler objects bent,
  Should all such vulgar, mean pursuits disdain.

" * Awake, my St. John, leave all meaner things,
To low Ambition, and the pride of Kings."

' Their task should be, to brave Temptation's pow'r,
And all his fierce assaults to render vain;
To stand, unmov'd, Affliction's evil hour,
And still with patient heart his rage sustain:
To trace each path where praise or virtue lies,
And fit their souls at last for commerce with the skies!'

15. *King John, an Historical Tragedy*, altered from Shak-
ire, as it was acted at Reading School for the Subscription
the Naval Pillar to be erected in Honor of our Naval Victories.
. 2s. Pridden, &c.

play, as originally written by Shakspeare, contains un-
dly many passages which might with propriety be rescinded,
red; and the editor who would content himself with refining
its dross, and would not with rash hand attempt to polish the
and increase the brilliancy of its native gems, would perform
hankful office. The edition before us, by Dr. Valpy, is exe-
with considerable taste and judgment; though in some few
es he has substituted one word for another without any appa-
sufficient cause; and in the interesting scene between Hubert
rthur, he has (we think) been guilty of the boldness to which
re alluded. Those parts which bear more immediately the
of Shakspeare's genius, though not altogether so perfect as
riticism would require, ought to be saved from the touch
ration or fancied emendation. In the scene above mentioned,
lpy has made an addition, which in our opinion does not in-
he effect so much as to justify his deviation from the original.
ders will recollect that, at the conclusion of the first scene of
act, Hubert expresses his reluctance in the following words:

ub. Well; see to live; I will not touch thine eyes,
the treasure that thine uncle owes;
I sworn; and I did purpose, boy,
his same very iron to burn them out.
rthur. O now you look like Hubert; all this while
ere disguised."

scene, as Dr. Valpy has altered it, stands as follows:

bert. Hold thy tongue, boy, or I'll increase thy pain!
ur. I will—O spare me, Hubert, but a moment,
ile I pray to God!—I'll not be loud—
be heard by you—indeed I need not—
ftest sigh is heard aloud in Heav'n!—
for this I sent my prayers for Hubert?
rt. For me!
ur. This very hour I pray'd for you,
Angel should have come to me,
ld me Hubert would put out my eyes,
d not have believ'd him—none but Hubert!
rt, (*throwing away the iron*.) I cannot bear this innocence!
ur. O Heav'n!
y'r is heard—and Hubert is himself!
elenting eye his virtue gleams,

And, like my guardian Angel, (*kneeling down and embracing*
knees,) has dispell'd
This dream of death.
Hubert. O raise thee from the earth,
Poor injur'd Prince!—thy looks, thy kind affection,
Have conquer'd, and redeem'd my soul from ruin.'

Art. 16. *The Second Part of King Henry the Fourth*, altered Shakspeare, as it was acted at Reading School. Published was performed, for the Benefit of the Humane Society. 2s. Pridden.

The observations with respect to the plays of Shakspeare, w we have made in the preceding article, apply equally in the pre case. Certainly the tragedy of Henry the Fourth, Part 2, w Dr. Valpy has here altered, is not in its original state fit to be or rehearsed by young persons. The age of Shakspeare was m gross than that in which we live; and hence we find a coarsenes indelicacy in many of his characters, which cannot now be tolera In preparing the drama before us, therefore, to be *got up* and e bited by young gentlemen, it was proper (as Dr. V. suggests in advertisement) to weed it of all noxious expressions, and to leav it nothing which should taint the mind of youth. It undoubte requires some skill, however, to remove the thorns without carr away thorns and roses together: but it is not an insurmountable d culty; and though various critics may have different opinions c cerning the several alterations made by Dr. V. they must agree t they generally display taste, and a commendable attention to cause of virtue.—As to the moral of the story, it is observed t 'the excellent instructions of a dying father to his son, and the formation of a dissipated Prince, independently of innumerable be ties of style and sentiment, render this play admirably calcula for youth: it is therefore hoped that this attempt will not be favourably received or severely criticized.'

In one scene, Dr. V. remarks, a total change has been mad the character of *Falstaff*. Had he yet more abbreviated this c racter, it might have been still fitter for the *Reading School Theatr*

Art. 17. *Folly as it Flies:* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As formed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frede Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

The character of this lively but desultory writer's production so well known, that it is sufficient to say that the family-likenes completely preserved in the piece before us. They are calcula for temporary success, and have the same relation to regular p which a japan-tea-board bears to a picture. The absurd and ex vagant manners of the times can alone be pleaded in extenuation of author's caprices; and he may say, with Young,

> "Who can write so fast as men run mad?"

The principal novelty in this play is the character of an adve zing quack, one of those pests who fatten on the credulity of the a He shall make his appearance before our readers:

'

' *Dr.* Infallible *sings without*.
cour. Heh ? What fine Gentleman have we here ? Surely I
t that face.
Enter Dr. Infallible *and* Edward *his Servant*.
r. " Ti di diddle liddle."—What, Mr. Malcour ! My old
ance, Mr. Malcour !
ur. Why, it can't be ! You, the half-starved journeyman to
f-starved apothecary, who used to bring me medicines at
ter—You Tom Drudgewell !
r. Mum—Not Tom Drudgewell now—Ever read the news-
(*taking snuff affectedly.*)
ur. Constantly.
r. Recollect Dr. Infallible ?
ur. To be sure—the fellow's always puffing himself.
r. Be quiet—I'm Doctor Infallible.
ur. You !
r. Yes; I'm sole proprietor and ingenious inventor of that
l medicine, call'd Radix Rheno—to be sold at my own
price eight shillings and sixpence a bottle, stamp inclusive.
No cure, no pay.—And a lamp over the door, to show the
don't practise in the dark.
ur, Bravo ! And, pray,—for I forget—what is this Rhadix
a cure for ?
r. Every thing—Chirosis, Polypus, Ophondria, Astherea,
sia, Atrophy, Notophry, and that worst of all disorders,
'.
ur. So I see,—and that's a complaint I'm acquainted with :
rse me if ever I heard of the rest.
r. Nor I, 'till I turn'd Quack.
ur. What the devil ! do you invent these disorders ?
r. No—our medicines invent them. We give the remedy,
t gives the disease.
ur. Indeed ! And don't the town find you out ?
r. Cann't—dead men tell no tales.—But, excuse me one in-
Edward, take this letter—Compliments to Sir Herbert, and
e to Georgiana. [*Exit* Edward *at Gateway*.
ur. To Georgiana ! Why, zounds ! have you the audacity
e———
r. Hush—say nothing—I'll buy her (*taking snuff*). Cupid's
medicine, pleasant, pernicious, corrupt, and damn'd expen-
'll buy her.
ur. Ridiculous ! Do you suppose Sir Herbert will consent ?
r. Not yet—but his wife must have money, and that letter
im a friendly loan of some thousands you understand—and
me home to dinner.—My chariot there shall take you—look
rriage makes a Doctor you know (*looking out*).
ur. (*also looking out*). Your carriage ! Why, that's a

r. So it is.—Well, that's also my carriage ; for if chariots
doctors going, dam'me, but the doctors set the hearses

Malcour. True; but I must visit an old friend, at that house yonder; so adieu.

Doctor. That! What, that house where the knocker's tied up!—dear delicious sight!—Oh! Turtle to an Alderman—Gold to a miser—a mistress to her lover, isn't half so gratifying as a tied up knocker to a medical man. But, adieu! and when you want a dinner, you know where to find one—and sure of the best company, that is, sure of venison, turbot, Burgundy, and Champagne. (*Going, stops.*) I say though – that tied up knocker! Coud'dn't you recommend? – No—don't trouble yourself.—Dare say my Radix Rheno has been there already. [*Exeunt.*'

Neither wit nor reason, however, will be able to drive the hydra Quackery out of the world.

Art. 18. *Urania; or the Illuminé:* a Comedy, in Two Acts, As performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By William Robert Spencer, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1802.

This agreeable little piece is intended to rally the spectral inclinations of the Germans, which have lately produced such frightful apparitions in the form, of novels and plays. The intrigue consists in imposing an earthly Princess on Prince Manfred for a Celestial beauty: but perhaps the subject would have admitted more decoration by the aid of Marmontel's *Mari Sylphe*, which turns on a similar adventure. We shall give a specimen of the dialogue:

'*Arm.* Imprudent Prince! thou shalt soon repent thy rashness in accusing me of imposture. (*Stamps his foot – the Scene opening discovers a Female Figure, elevated on a brilliant cloud.*)

'SONG.—FEMALE.

'The star beam of thy natal hour
  Ascendant guides thy way;
A spell beyond the wizard's power
  My charmed steps obey!

'If no false light thy search allures,
  The talisman to miss,
This visionary day ensures
  An age of future bliss!

Man. Angel! spirit! oh, speak again; do thou command me; do thou prove me: that voice can never counsel ingratitude or impiety.

Arm. The Powers are kinder to thee than thy deserts can claim: beware of disobedience to her; beware, and prosper. (*The cloud descends to soft music.*) [*Exit.*

Female. Manfred, your faith and long perseverance have prevailed. I am deputed to reward your labours, if you prove yourself really worthy of supernatural protection.

Man. O gracious spirit! one sight of thee has already overpaid all my labours, and all my sacrifices. One single look of thine has already blest me more than all the love of the loveliest of human kind. Oh, tell me by what name I may address thee, and by what means I may preserve thy celestial favour.

Female. I am called Urania. I have long approved your merits, and wished to reward them. But much you have yet to do, to confirm your pretensions to my affection.

Man. My life will be too short to prove the excess and purity of my devotion.

Ura. The colder virtues may require to be proved by length of time; but a single day—a single hour, can give more real proofs of love, than a whole age can furnish. Manfred, the head computes by days and years; the heart's calendar is a calendar of moments, of moments so soft, so bright! they are the down on the wings of Time; and the grains of gold amongst the sand of his hour glass.

Man. Then shall every moment of my existence be a proof of my devotion

Ura. Conrad, your friend, is as yet an enemy to the mystic science; him you must dissuade from his prejudices, and convert to the sect; reveal to him my mission and my nature.—This is all I can communicate at a first interview. Farewell; attempt not to follow me, and remember to obey me. (*The cloud re-ascends to soft music.*)'

Too much prettiness and conceit are displayed in some of the speeches, but, on the whole, the public has been kind to much inferior productions.

ART. 19.—*The Poor Gentleman:* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By George Colman (the Younger). 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

We have been too much amused with several of the scenes in this comedy, to note its defects and irregularities with rigour; and though it is far from being a finished piece, it occasionally exhibits touches of real merit. The principal comic character in the play is a sporting military apothecary, who shall introduce himself in his own laughable jargon to our readers:

'*Enter* OLLAPOD.

'*Olla.* Sir Charles, I have the honour to be your slave. Hope our health is good. Been a hard winter here—Sore throats were plenty; so were woodcocks. Flush'd four couple, one morning, in a half-mile walk, from our town, to cure Mrs. Quarles of a quinsey. May coming on soon, Sir Charles—season of delight, love, and campaigning! Hope you come to sojourn, Sir Charles. Shouldn't be always on the wing—that's being too flighty. He, he, he! Do you take, good Sir, do you take?

Sir Cha. Oh, yes, I take. But, by the cockade in your hat, Ollapod, you have added lately, it seems, to your avocations.

Olla. He! he! yes, Sir Charles. I have, now, the honour to be Cornet in the Volunteer Association Corps, of our town. It fell out unexpected—pop, on a sudden; like the going off of a field-piece, or an alderman in an apoplexy.

Sir Cha. Explain.

Olla. Happening to be at home—rainy day—no going out to sport, blister, shoot, nor bleed—was busy behind the counter—

You know my shop, Sir Charles—Galen's head over the door—n gilt him last week, by the bye—looks as fresh as a pill.

Sir Cha. Well, no more on that head now—Proceed.

Olla. On that head! he! he! he? That's very well; very w indeed! Thank you, good Sir, I owe you one.—Churchwar Posh, of our town, being ill of an indigestion, from eating th pounds of measly pork, at a Vestry dinner, I was making up a thartick for the patient; when, who should strut into the shop, l Lieutenant Grains. the Brewer—sleek as a dray-horse—in a sm scarlet jacket, tastily turn'd up with a rhubarb-colour'd lapelle. confess his figure struck me. I look'd at him, as I was thumpi the mortar, and felt instantly inoculated with a military ardour.

Sir Cha. Inoculated! I hope your ardour was of a favoural sort.

Olla. Ha! ha! That's very well—very well, indeed!—Tha you, good Sir, I owe you one. We first talk'd of shooting—I knew my celebrity that way, Sir Charles. I told him, the day b fore, I had kill'd six brace of birds—I thump'd on at the mortar. We then talk'd of physic—I told him, the day before, I had kill —lost, I mean,—six brace of patients—I thump'd on at the mortar eyeing him all the while; for he look'd devilish flashy, to be sur and I felt an itching to belong to the Corps. The medical, u military, both deal in death, you know—so, 'twas natural. H he!—Do you take, good Sir? do you take?

Sir Cha. Take? Oh, nobody can miss.

Olla. He then talk'd of the Corps itself: said it was sickly; a if a professional person would administer to the health of the As ciation—dose the men, and drench the horse—he could, perhaps, p cure him a Cornetcy.

Sir Cha. Well, you jump'd at the offer?

Olla. Jump'd! I jump'd over the counter—kick'd down Churc warden Posh's cathartick, into the pocket of Lieutenant Grai smart scarlet jacket, tastily turn'd up with a rhubarb-colour'd l pelle; embraced him and his offer; and I am now Cornet Ollapo apothecary, at the Galen's-head, of the Association Corps of Caval at your service.

Sir Cha. I wish you joy of your appointment. You may no distil water for the shop, from the laurels you gather in the field.

Olla. Water for—Oh! laurel water—he! he! Come, that's ve well—very well indeed! Thank you, good Sir, I owe you one.'

The play contains, as usual, a dashing, thoughtless character, t display Mr. Lewis's abilities; with rather an over-dose of rustic se timent, in Sir Roger and his servant: but it is calculated, alto gether, to give pleasure in the closet, as well as in representation.

Art. 20. *Poems and Ballads*. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Mawma

This little volume is very neatly printed, and would make a ve pretty present for any sentimental young lady at a boarding school.—I is *all about* love and honour, and seduction and suicide, and other tra gical subjects equally new and affecting.—The first and second stanzas are incomparably the best of the whole:

‘ The drum, “ the signal to prepare,” was beating,
Responsive to the mellow bugle’s sound ;
The outposts, charg’d, were in alarm retreating ;
And the struck tents were levell’d to the ground :

‘ Each anxious soldier, earnest in his duty,
Prepar’d in action for the warrior’s part ;
Save where the tearful eye of sorrowing beauty
Claim’d the soft feeling of a lover’s heart.’

In another piece, the sonneteer parleys thus elegantly with a nightingale :

‘ Say, if by death thy helpless partner fell,
Or captur’d, victim of the wily snare ?
Sweet bird of eve ! alas, thou can’st not tell,
Save by the melting note that speaks despair.’

The verses are in general sufficiently smooth, and the rhymes tolerably correct :—but we verily believe that there is not a single new image nor combination of images in the volume.

Art. 21. *Union :* A Poem in Two Parts. Part First. 12mo. pp. 40. 2s. 6d. Boards. Chapple. 1802.

The sentiments of this little composition are in the true spirit of common-place, though the diction rises occasionally to the dignity of the absurd. The author, however, is extremely fluent, and on the whole sufficiently harmonious in the versification. He has copied with considerable success the verbose and lubricated style of Thomson in his *Liberty*, and seems to be tolerably familiar with the phraseology of most of our modern poets.

The poem is intended to commemorate the late happy union of Great Britain and Ireland :—but unfortunately the author has been unable to get forwards to his subject in this *first part* of his performance. It is occupied with an encomium on *that* Union which (as we are told in the argument) “ binds each atom to its sphere, and prevents matter from forming an universe of dust, and which preserves the natural and moral world in harmony and order.”—There is a little poetical license, perhaps, in giving this great principle the name of *Union*, and something rather too dithyrambic in flying off entirely from the professed subject of the poem, in order to celebrate it. This is the author’s invocation :

‘ Union ! prime source of all that’s good or grand,
Parent of Beauty, Order, Concord, Peace :
Twin-Sister thou to Harmony Divine !
’Tis thine to hush the Universe to awe.’

On the banishment of Union out of paradise, the author thus addresses the ewes and rams :

‘ Ye fleecy flocks, go kiss the harmless paw,
And take glad gambols with your tiger friends ;
Soon must you weep, the happy truce no more ;
Soon must you shrink into your frighted folds,

And bootless parley with the robber wolf.
You never more shall trust your snowy sides
On the soft lap of such a mistress Eve.'

We would humbly suggest that '*Mrs. Adam*' would be a preferable reading in the last line of this quotation;—in other respects, the passage is one of the most superb in the whole performance.

Art. 22. *Remonstrance:* with other Poems. By Catherine Hood. 8vo. pp. 112. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

This Remonstrance is addressed to those "incorrigible Jacobins," on whom much good eloquence has been thrown away; and it has scarcely a greater chance of reclaiming them than most of the preceding attempts. The style is feeble, and the versification always drawling and often very incorrect. In tracing the rise of disorders in France, we have these mellifluous lines:

'Hence, Infidelity to public view,
The barriers of conscience soon o'erthrew;
Then manners profligate, devoid of shame,
And ev'ry odious vice which brands thy name,
For vengeance ripe, drew down impending fate.
And a dire revolution wreck'd the state.'

After a not less animated picture of the progress and consummation of the revolutionary horrors, the author poses the adversary with this home question:

'Now, furious demagogue, whate'er thy name,
(To that of patriot thou hast little claim)
Wouldst thou in such a cause as this advance,
And change our liberty for that of France?'

We cannot refuse a place to the following spirited reprehension of a very fashionable and very indefensible practice:

'Oh! shameless violation of his word,
E'en on the holy Sabbath of the Lord,
Mammon, insatiate god of avarice,
Shuffles his spotted plagues, and shakes his rattling dice!'

The smaller poems are rather better than the leading composition.

Art. 23. *The Cid*, a Tragedy. In Five Acts. Taken from the French of Corneille. By a Gentleman, formerly a Captain in the Army. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1802.

This tame translation is prefaced by some querulous Latin verses, intitled *Ægroti Questus*, in which the author regrets the suppression of Pharo and E. O. We are sorry that it is not in our power to commend his attempts, either in Latin or English.

Art. 24. *Juvenile Friendship;* or the Holidays: A Drama, in Three Acts. To which is subjoined, the Arrogant Boy: a Dramatic After piece, in Verse, intended for the Representation of Children. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

Among the other infantine pursuits of this age, the rage of writing books for the use of children has spred widely. Instead of abridging their studies, which was the original intention of their voluntary instructors, the child's library is now overburdened with compilations; and he learns to trifle, when he ought to be laying the foundation of useful knowlege. We have here a play designed for children, as if children were not already fond enough of plays; and as if it were more necessary to train up the rising generation in the practice of the theatrical art, than to discourage a taste which threatens to extinguish the slight remains of youthful diffidence that are spared by modern education.

Art. 25. *Carminum rariorum Macaronicorum Delectus. In Usum Ludorum Apollinarium. Fasciculus Primus.* 8vo. pp. 57. Edinburgi. 1801.

The poems in this collection consist of Drummond's well known *Polemo-Middinia;* a version in Latin, *not* Macaronic, of *Chryste-Kirk on the Green;* and a translation of Ovid's Contest between Ajax and Ulysses, into a strange jargon called the Buchan dialect. We apprehend that the editor will find little encouragement to continue this collection. Poor Ovid never was so barbarously treated, since the moment of his exile!

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *Medical Researches and Observations*, being a Series of Essays on the Practice of Physic.—Essay 1st, On the Nature, Cause, and Cure of Fevers, with Forms for Extemporaneous Prescription. By Dr. Andrew Ferguson. 8vo. pp. 375. 7s. Boards. Printed at Aberdeen.—Bent, London. 1801.

The author of this work closely follows, in his principles and practice, the doctrines of Brown; whose system, though now (in this country at least) nearly abandoned, he conceives to have simplified and improved the medical art more than the observations and theories of 2000 years. We have frequently had occasion to notice the speculations of the author and the favourers of the *Elementa Medicinæ;* and therefore we deem it unnecessary to enter into a detailed examination of the present work, which is founded on the same basis, and possesses no novelty of illustration nor of remark.

That the proximate cause of fever is debility, and that the cure depends on the proper employment of stimulants, is the sum of the author's doctrine; and yet, with whatever apparent facility his plan may be carried into effect, from the similarity of the action of the medicines, he has occupied 50 pages and enumerated 292 different forms in prescribing extemporaneously the drink, diet, and medicines recommended in more general terms in his essay.

Dr. Ferguson has introduced some trifling alterations in the general terms employed by the Brunonians; such as the substitution of *vitality* and *vitalment* for *excitability* and *excitement*.

Art. 27. *Practical Observations on the Inoculation of Cow-Pox.* Pointing out a Test of a Constitutional Affection, in those Cases in which the Inflammation is slight, and in which no Fever is perceptible. Illustrated by Cases and Plates. By H. Bryce, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, &c. 8vo. pp. 236. 6s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

This work contains a correct and perspicuous account of the history and principal facts of Vaccine Inoculation; and the author confirms, by considerable experience in Edinburgh, the decisive evidence which has already been laid before the public respecting the safety and utility of this practice. From a consideration of the well known fact that a second puncture, in variolous inoculation which has taken effect, will, though made some days afterward, be as soon in maturity as the first, the author was induced to adopt a similar criterion to judge of the existence of constitutional affection in inoculated cow-pox. He found that, when he made a second insertion of vaccine matter in the opposite arm, on the 5th day from the first puncture, the progress of the second pustule, if the constitution had been affected, was so much accelerated as to have the same appearances on the 4th day, that the first pustule presented on the 9th. This, therefore, he conceived to be the test of constitutional affection; for when the effects of the first puncture were merely local, the second (he imagined) would, in the same way as in small-pox, preserve its usual course uninfluenced by the first. The vesicles produced by the second inoculation, he observes, were always considerably smaller than those of the first, but in appearance they were perfect.

These experiments seem to us ingenious and satisfactory: but we do not conceive that they will be of much practical utility; because, by adopting the mode recommended, there would be a great increase of trouble and inconvenience, for the very small chance of the occurrence of a regular local pustule, in no degree differing from a regular constitutional one: particularly where there are no means of previously determining when such a circumstance is likely to take place.

The acceleration mentioned above will occur at whatever period after the first inoculation the second is made: but the author considers the fifth day as the most advisable for the experiment.

Art. 28. *The First Number of Veterinary Transactions:* containing Observations on the Effects and Treatment of Wounds of Joints, and other circumscribed Cavities. Published by Order of the General Meeting of Subscribers to the Veterinary College. 8vo. 3s. 6d. stitched. Debrett. 1801.

The medical treatment of one of the most noble and useful animals of the brute creation has, till lately, been intrusted solely to an ignorant and interested class of men, totally destitute of that previous information which is necessary to enable them to comprehend the nature of those diseases which they professed to cure. It is not therefore extraordinary that an attempt should have been made to remedy this evil, by founding an institution, in which the principles of veterinary science are taught, and the practice illustrated by the actual observation of disease. Our readers already know that such an institution, under the name of the Veterinary College, was begun by private subscription in the year 1791, and since the year 1795 has received from Parliament a handsome annual allowance for promoting the views of the establishment. The publication before us is the work of the Professor, Mr. Coleman, and is the commencement of a plan settled at a general meeting of the subscribers, to publish annually some of the most remarkable cases which should occur at this College.

In a preface of considerable length, the author states some of the advantages of a veterinary establishment, and points out many of the sources of opposition which must necessarily be made to it, for some time, by interested individuals.

We then come to the medical observations; in illustration of which, seven cases and two plates are given; and which are confined to wounds of circumscribed cavities, including those of joints, tendinous sheaths, and veins: all of these possessing, in Mr. C.'s opinion, something in common. In the wounds of joints, mucous capsules, and sheaths of tendons, the Professor recommends the actual cautery; and he employs the same remedy in wounds of the chest and abdomen, and in inflammations of the cavities of veins which have succeeded bleeding: but, in the latter case, when cautery is insufficient to stop the hæmorrhage, the vein is to be taken up by ligature.

The regulations of the establishment, and a list of the subscribers, are annexed.

Art. 29. *Heads of Lectures on the Institutions of Medicine.* By Andrew Duncan, M. D. & P. 5th Edition. 8vo. Boards. Edinburgh; London, Robinsons. 1801.

As the utility of this work must of necessity be principally confined to those gentlemen, who have an opportunity of attending the lectures given by the learned author in the University of Edinburgh, we shall enter no farther into an account of it than will suffice to point out its principal divisions.—In the first part, the author treats of Pathological Physiology, in which he considers the nature, properties, and morbid affections of the different solids and fluids of the animal body, and of the most important organs. The second part relates to the subject of Therapeutics, the third to Medical Jurisprudence, and the 4th treats on Medical Police; to which last are subjoined some introductory observations, respecting the nature, extent, and importance of the subject.

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *Financial and Political Facts of the Eighteenth Century;* with comparative Estimates of the Revenue, Expenditure, Debts, Manufactures, and Commerce of Great Britain. By John M'Arthur, Esq. Author of a Treatise on Naval Courts Martial. Third Edition. With an Appendix of useful and interesting Documents. The whole revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 360. 6s. Boards. Wright. 1801.

The first edition of this work appeared as an half-crown pamphlet, without the author's name; and in M R. Vol. xxxiv. p. 327. we particularly noticed the object and tendency of the writer; viz to keep up the spirits of the nation, by such views of our strength and resources as were calculated to diffuse hope and banish despair. This pamphlet is now grown into a handsome octavo volume by the addition of new matter; and the original plan is also in some degree altered.

tered. Mr. M'Arthur continues to throw a bright tint over our prospects:

'When we reflect (he says) on a *fact* no less curious than unexampled in the history of mankind, of a public revenue exceeding the aggregate amount of the annual rent-roll of cultivated landed property in the state, including the general income arising from tithes and houses, we should be apt to conclude, on a superficial view of the subject, that our national resources and public exertions had reached their climax and closed with the eighteenth century.—I shall, however, endeavour to prove that the national resources have not even yet been entirely called forth, nor stretched to the utmost; and that, should any future exigency unhappily render it necessary to draw them more fully into action, they may, like the cords of a bow, safely be strained to a greater tension than it is possible at present to imagine, without the risk of breaking the one or the other.'

This is politic doctrine, if it be not a political fact; perhaps it is more the former than the latter, for in excessive straining there must be some danger of snapping either bow or string.

Mr. M'Arthur's Appendix contains tables exhibiting,—The State of the Public Revenue, and of the Public Expenditure, from 1700 to 1800.—The official Value of Imports and Exports, and apparent Balance of Trade, distinguishing the official Value of West Indi[illegible] Imports into Great Britain, for upwards of one hundred years.—A List of the Supplies and Ways and Means for the Eighteenth Century.—A General View of the Public Debt.—Official Report of the Imports and Exports of France, for the 8th year of the Republic; mad[illegible] by the Minister of the Interior, to the French Consuls, May 1801.—And a table exhibiting the Commerce of the Port of London, as mad[illegible] up from the Public Accounts for one year, ending the 5th Januar[illegible] 1798, with the real Value of Foreign Imports and Exports, estimated from the Payment of the Convoy Duty.

These documents are curious, and their appearance here seems to prove that Mr. M'Arthur has minutely attended to the subjects which he has undertaken to discuss.

Art. 31. *Thoughts on the late General Election*, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons, &c. 1802.

Long before the existence of the Jacobin club in France, conte[illegible]ts and disputations prevailed in our own country, respecting all the gre[illegible]at subjects connected with liberty; and the names of Whig and To[illegible]y sufficiently expressed the two contending parties. We perceive [illegible]o good reason, therefore, for importing into British political conti[illegible]versy, a cant term which originated in the French Revolution. F[illegible]r the purposes of calumny and irritation, alone, can the word *Jacobinis*[illegible] be employed; and it seems to be deemed good policy to stigmati[illegible]e the adherents to old-fashioned Whiggism with this opprobrious ep[illegible]thet, and to assert that it is at least the parent of the Jacobinica[illegible] system. This is a *ruse de guerre* of which Mr. Bowles very liberall[illegible] avails himself; and consequently no Whig, who should avow th[illegible] doctrines maintained by Lord Somers, must now expect to escap[illegible] th[illegible] this gentleman's attacks. Even popular elections are Jacobinical; and Jacobinical must be every reviewer who is not of the same opinion.

Without discussing farther the propriety of the term by which Mr. B. marks his hostility, let us notice the particular objects of his condemnation, and the temper which pervades his pamphlet. Few persons require to be informed that liberty is often regarded by the vulgar as synonymous with licentiousness; and that, in collecting popular suffrages, some vice, irregularity, and folly will be displayed: but it would be difficult to prove that the last election for Middlesex, to which this writer chiefly directs his attention, displayed more of what he denominates Jacobinism, than the famous contest in which John Wilkes was returned. We desire not to justify all the proceedings of the late election: but we shall remark that, if popular effervescence and clamour on the part of a favourite candidate with the multitude be an evidence of Jacobinism, Jacobinism is almost inseparable from a representative system.—Mr. B. says that 'it is astonishing that there should be found a man daring enough to insinuate that the people of this country are not fairly represented;' hence all the measures which were pursued to obtain an amended representation, and in particular the corresponding societies, with the "acquitted felons," are severely reprobated; and Mr. Horne Tooke is accused (it is said on solid grounds) of having a principal share in the composition of the "Rights of Man," and of being the most dangerous person in this country.—The State Trials, the Treason and Sedition Bills, the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the conduct of the Cold-Bath Fields' Prison, are all justified by Mr. B., and encomiums on Mr. Mainwaring and Aris the governor, are subjoined!

Sir Francis Burdett is introduced for another purpose. His conduct is very strongly condemned; and one sentence in his address of thanks is censured with sufficient reason. What Sir Francis meant by "*hired* Magistrates, Parliaments, and *Kings*," has never been explained: but Mr. B. regards the expression as an evidence of Sir Francis's wish to subvert the monarchy; and his flag inscribed *No Bastile* is called standard for insurrection.—The Case of the *Mill-voters* is also particularly considered; and the conduct of the Sheriffs in admitting them to poll calls forth some pointed animadversions. It has been reported that some of these holders of shares in the Isleworth mill voted for Mr. Mainwaring: but this assertion is here (and we believe, with truth,) denied. One did attempt to vote for him, but was refused by Mr. M.'s inspector as illegal.

Though we are as little disposed as Mr. Bowles to justify the arts which are practised in the popular choice of Members of Parliament, we cannot allow that those very circumstances, which he with reason reprobates, are demonstrations of the progress of Jacobinism; because, long before he was born, it seems to have been thought that "*all was fair* at Elections, as at *Foot-ball.*" Still it may be wise to make some regulations to prevent the recurrence of irregularity and disorder on these occasions; and some of Mr. B.'s thoughts in this respect merit consideration. It is always seasonable to inculcate the necessity of Social Order, and the duty of submission to the laws; to discountenance sedition; and to cherish a love for our admirable Constitution: but, in the performance of this task, no spirit of party should appear; for there is no justice, nor any wisdom, in representing those who would guard with peculiar care the popular part of the Constitution, as desirous of subverting the whole.

Art. 32. *A Review of Public Affairs since the Commencement of the present Century.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Knight and Triphook.

The events which preceded and led to the treaties of London and Amiens are here detailed, and the merits of the Peace discussed. It is maintained that, if the Definitive Treaty be not glorious, it is certainly honourable and advantageous; and, in short, the whole pamphlet is designed to prove that the nation ought to be satisfied with the conduct of Mr. Addington, whom this writer represents as having already run the full career of a distinguished minister.

EDUCATION.

Art. 33. *A New English Spelling Book*, or Key to the English Language; in which its Difficulties are simplified, and its Beauties pointed out: interspersed with numerous Observations, &c. &c. By John Robinson, Mathematician. 12mo. 1s. Vernor and Hood.

It must ever be considered as bad taste, and will ever be found to be bad policy, when an author is lavish of commendation on his own performance. Mr. Robinson says that his work 'forms one of the completest books of rudimental instruction, from *infancy* to *manhood*, ever yet offered to the public, for *foreigners* as well as *natives*.' We cannot assent to this declaration, and it renders us perhaps less willing to bestow that praise on the publication which we should otherwise have felt to be its due. It certainly is not deficient in merit, but neither is it free from imperfections; and in particular on the subject of pronunciation, we could enumerate many objections to the author's rules. Altogether, however, if it be not 'one of the *completest*,' we are willing to place it among the *better* sort of English Spelling Books.

Art. 34. *Moral Tales for Young People.* By Maria Edgeworth, Author of Practical Education, &c. 12mo. 5 Vols. 15s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

These tales for young people may be perused with benefit by people of all ages. They are lessons of sound judgment adapted to the various events of real life, interesting the mind and fixing the attention without inflaming the imagination. Forester, a young man from whom the first story is intitled, is a character which, though it may be called excentric, is by no means uncommon, especially in our times. Despising the general forms and mutual dependencies of civilized society, he is led away by a thousand visionary schemes of beneficence and happiness; which, by improper management and untoward circumstances, or merely by not falling under discreet control, would probably have rendered him a fanatic, and plunged him in guilt. This tale is ingeniously wrought, and well related.

The counterpart to this tale is the little narrative which bears the name of Angelina, a female character of the same cast: in which the nonsense of sentimentality is judiciously attacked with the shafts of ridicule. With the romantic excentricities of Angelina, are contrasted faults of a more vulgar and despicable sort. In Miss Burrage, is delineated the picture of a young lady who meanly flatters persons of distinction, in order to insinuate herself into their good graces; and who, after having smuggled herself (as the author expresses it) into genteel company, is ashamed to acknowlege her former friends, to whom she was bound by the strongest ties of gratitude.

Under the title of 'the Bad Governess,' we are presented with a faithful sketch of the necessary consequences of imprudently committing the happiness of a daughter, to the care of those who are incapable of teaching any thing but *accomplishments*.

The 'Prussian Vase,' while it affords a good lesson against imprudence, is at the same time an exercise of judgment, and an excellent eulogium on our trial by jury. This tale, we are informed by Mr. Edgeworth, who writes the preface, is principally designed for young gentlemen who are destined to the bar.

'The Good Governess' is a lesson in the art of giving lessons, and we think that it would be no easy task to deliver a better.

In 'the Good Aunt,' are pointed out the advantages which a judicious early education confers on those who are intended for public seminaries.—In short, these tales are written with the design of illustrating the opinions delivered in the elaborate work formerly published by this author and her father, intitled, "Practical Education."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 35. *An Essay or Practical Inquiry concerning the Hanging and Fastening of Gates and Wickets*, with Plates. By Thomas N. Parker, Esq. M. A. 8vo. 2s. Lackington and Co.

The principles of science being of universal application, wise men will endeavour to extend them to the most minute concerns. Philosophy not only explains to us the vast system of Nature, but instructs us in what manner every process and operation may be most perfectly and advantageously performed. Farmers and country gentlemen well know how troublesome gates are which are injudiciously hung and fastened, and will not deem Mr. Parker's inquiry beneath their notice, which endeavours to lay down some rules for directing those who are employed in this part of rural business. The principles which should govern the operator in hanging gates and wickets are first considered; next their practical application is shewn; and hence the author passes to the Fastening of Gates and Wickets, to their mode of construction, and to give some rules for making different kinds of Fences.

The Principles of Hanging Gates are thus given:

'When the hooks or pivots upon which a gate is hung are p cisely in the same perpendicular line with each other, the gate v be at rest wherever it may be placed.

'But the smallest variation of the hooks from their perpendicu line will attach to a gate so suspended one determinate line of rest a no other.'

'When a gate is in its line of rest, or in its opposite line of equ brium, the two hooks by which it is suspended, and the centre the gate's gravitation, will be found to be in one and the same v tical plane.'

After having laid down these fundamental propositions, Mr. advances to their application, and illustrates his instructions by re rences to plates. He remarks 'that all gate posts and gates oug to be placed perpendicularly, and that all road gates should shut themselves, nearly from the half circle.' To render his pamph practically useful, every particular respecting its subject is considere and a Table of proportion is given in regard to Hooks and Thimbl supposing a gate to be a right angled parallelogram, set forth inches and twelfth parts of inches.

The remarks on latches and catches, and on fencing, evince t author's attention to the subject: but the want of the plates pr cludes us from exhibiting his ideas. As, however, the pamphlet cheap, those whom it may concern will perhaps be as well pleased b our recommending the whole as by our transcribing parts of it.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our 'constant Reader,' who inquires concerning a publication in titled *Alfred, a Vision*, is informed that the work is now on our tabl and that we hope soon to direct our attention to it.

The communication from Whitby, respecting a certain *Conflagra tion*, is received: but the matter is not of sufficient importance t induce us to *burn our fingers*, by any interference.

NOTICE.

We find ourselves so frequently requested to announce *new im pressions* of books, that we are obliged to give this notice that it i not within our plan always to insert accounts of such new editions and that we shall not depart from this rule without having some rea son for the deviation: such as the importance of the work, and o the additions or alterations: in which instances, our own judgme must form our sole guide.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1802.

Art. I. *The Journal of Frederick Horneman's Travels, from Cairo to Mourzouk, the Capital of the Kingdom of Fezzan, in Africa,* in the Years 1797-8. 4to. 15s. Boards. Nicol. 1802.

Curiosity, and the natural spirit of enterprize, are perhaps alone sufficient to impel men to explore unknown regions: but all difficulties and dangers vanish before this spirit, when it is prompted and supported by the liberality of patronage, and when it is farther incited by the lively interest which the world takes in the fortune of bold adventurers. Africa, so long excluded from research by physical and moral difficulties, will now probably yield to our geographers, its cities, its mountains, and its rivers. Various travellers have already transmitted accounts of the manners and customs of its people; and merchants will perhaps soon spread in profusion before us its drugs, its ivory, and its gold. More than one incursion has proved that Africa is not inaccessible, and each facilitates the next. Reason might suggest modes of guarding against the dangers of its deserts and the cruel fanaticism of its inhabitants: but experience instructs more surely; and from this source, the traveller learns what is to be provided as absolutely necessary, and what is to be thrown aside as an incumbrance; what are the means of investigation; what are the customs of which prejudice exacts the observance; and what conduct will inflame the inextinguishable rage of ignorant superstition. Fewer precautions, however, than we might have supposed, are requisite: the secret of travelling in Africa, which must have been obvious to the mind of every one during the perusal of Mr. Park's work, Mr. Horneman delivers in one line: 'Travel as a Mohammedan merchant of the caravan.'

In this character, Mr. Horneman escaped dangers to which others have been exposed: yet, if we except the daring and patient Mungo Park, those who have lately transmitted accounts of their progress in Africa ran no great risque. Mr. Browne seems to have travelled under circumstances of no extraordinary difficulty; and he was so little apprehensive of danger, that in one instance he seems wantonly to have courted it. Mr. Barrow visited a country in a great degree known to us; and, armed with power, he could stop to gather this plant or to sketch that animal, and could weave without interruption his variegated page of lively anecdote, physical information, and philosophic reflection.

Of the present volume, which is published by the African Society, the narrative of Mr. Horneman forms about one third: the remainder is occupied with an introduction, a preface, and a dissertation on the Oasis of Siwah, by Sir William Young, Secretary to the Society; with geographical illustrations by Major Rennell; and with observations on the language of Siwah, by Mr. Marsden. The preface includes a letter, dated August 1798, from Mr. Horneman, transmitted from Cairo by General Bonaparte; from which we learn that the persons, who composed the caravan with which Mr. H. originally intended to proceed to Fezzan, were at first dispersed on the arrival of the French on the coast of Egypt: but that, after a short interval, they re-assembled; and that the French General was so far from throwing difficulties in the way of our traveller, that, to use Mr. H.'s own words, 'he promised me protection; he offered me money, or whatever was requisite to my undertaking, and he directed the necessary passports to be prepared for me.'

On the 5th of September 1798, Mr. Horneman joined, near Cairo, the caravan which yearly returns from Mecca through that city and Fezzan to the Western countries of Africa. The first journey was to Ummesogeir; during which nothing very remarkable, either as an adventure or as a natural phenomenon, presented itself. For having acted the *gentleman*, however, on the journey, he received a very sensible and proper rebuke from an old Arab:

> 'My dragoman, or interpreter, might, even in Europe, have passed for a good cook; and from remains of the provision which our hospitable friends at Cairo had supplied, was preparing an excellent supper, when an old Arab of Augila, observing his preparations, and that myself was unemployed, addressed me nearly as follows: "Thou art young, and yet dost not assist in preparing the meal of which thou art to partake: such, perhaps, may be a custom in the land of infidels, but is not so with us, and especially on a journey: thanks to God, we are not, in this desert, dependent on others, as are those poor pilgrims, but eat and drink what we ourselves provide, and as we please. Thou oughtest to learn every thing that the meanest Arab performs, that thou mayest be enabled to assist others in cases of necessity; otherwise, thou wilt be less esteemed, as being of less value than a mere woman; and many will think they may

justly deprive thee of every thing in thy possession, as being unworthy to possess any thing: (adding sarcastically,) perhaps thou art carrying a large sum of money, and payest those men well." This remonstrance was not thrown away. I immediately assisted in every thing that was not beyond my force; and proportionally gained on the good opinion and esteem of my fellow-travellers, and was no longer considered as a weak and useless idler in their troop.'

The village of Ummesogeir, at which the caravan stopped, is small, and its inhabitants are very few and very poor: but their poverty protects them from the assaults of the Bedouins, though not from the solicitations of avarice. It is not necessary that the object should be important, to call forth the love of gain and the violent passions:

'Coming (says Mr. H.) to a kind of market-place, in its centre I observed bargains making with such eagerness, noise, and altercation, that one should suppose the dealings to be of the first moment; but I soon perceived the sellers to be only a few poor pilgrims of our caravan, and their articles of trade to be merely *henna hoechel*, rings of lead or glass, and such like ornaments for women; which, with a little shot and gunpowder, they were bartering for dates; the merchandize on either side was not altogether worth a crown.'

From Ummesogeir, the caravan continued its route to Siwah; and perhaps the most interesting information in Mr. Horneman's narrative relates to the antiquities of that place. Mr. Browne *, before he penetrated to Darfour, made an expedition by the way of Derna to Siwah; and he there examined the remains of an antient building, which are now supposed to be those of the celebrated Temple of Jupiter Ammon. These same remains Mr. Horneman saw and explored; and the accounts and measurements of the two travellers do not altogether agree. This difference is, in part, the occasion of an ingenious essay contained in the present volume, by Sir W. Young; in which he endeavours to shew how Mr. B. and Mr. H., speaking of the same country and the same building, might give dissimilar accounts. His reasons appear to us satisfactory; and the arguments, by which the edifice seen by the travellers is proved to be the Temple of Jupiter Ammon, are intitled to attention. On a subject of this nature, however, the proof cannot be very decisive: but Sir William assumes, as a point clearly establised by Major Rennell in his comment on the geography of Herodotus, the position of the country within which the renowned temple of Ammon was erected. 'The facts, the arguments, and the inferences (he says) stated in that admirable work, indisputably shew the Oasis of Siwah to have been the Oasis of Ammon.'—As our limits do not perm us to make large extracts, we must be contented with quoti one argument adduced by the learned Secretary:

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* See chapter ii. Browne's Travels.

'Mr. Horneman was shewn, at the distance of half a mile fro the ruins, "*a spring of fresh water, which takes its rise in a grove date trees, and in a most romantic and beautiful situation.*"

'This description precisely answers to that of the *Fountain of t Sun*, mentioned by ancient writers: and the distance from the chi temple too seems to agree. "Haud procul arce *extrinsecùs* alteru Hammonis fanum jacet, quod multæ arbores proceræ inumbrant, *fons promximus est*, ὀνομαζομένη Ἡλίου κρήνη·" Diod. Sic. Tom. II p. 199. So too Curtius, "Est etiam aliud Hammonis nemus; i medio habet fontem; *Aquam Solis* vocant." Lib. iv. cap. 7.

'Thus far the merely descriptive accounts agree. If a furthe point can be ascertained, it will be conclusive, and the beautiful spo visited by our traveller, be identified as that of the Fountain of th Sun, situated *extrinsecùs*, or without the inclosure, in which stood th principal temple of Ammon.

'The water of the Fountain of the Sun was, at different period of each twenty-four hours, successively *hot* and *cold*: "Aquam eni habet, cum horis diei miris subinde vicibus re variantem. Nam su lucis ortum tepidam emittit. Die hinc progrediente pro horaru succedentium ratione, frigescit. Sub æstum vero meridianum frigido ejus summa est. Quæ rursùs parili modo remittit usque ad ve peram. Tunc appetente nocte rursùs incalescit, ad mediam usqu noctem, ubi exæstuat. Exinde calor sensìm deficit: donec un cum exortâ luce pristinam teporis vicem recuperârit." Diod. Sic Tom. II. edit. Wesseling, p. 199.

'Mr. Horneman appears to have made no inquiries on this curiou subject; but tells us, that having asked, "if there was any sprin of fresh water near?" he was shewn to the one he describes, undoubtedly the *nearest*, and probably the same as seen by Mr. Browne who says, (p. 24. of his Volume of Travels) that one of th springs which rise near the ruins described, is observed by the native to be *sometimes cold and sometimes warm.*" Mr. Browne does no appear to have considered the Oasis of Siwah as that of Ammo He had no favourite discovery to set forth and confirm by particul remarks and circumstances: he had not an interest in his account the changeable temperature of this spring, but that of truth. Th periodical variation from hot to cold, and from cold to heat, ma rather, therefore on his relation, be assumed as fact; and be tak as a matter of proof concurrent with the grove, the spring itself, th distance from the ruins, and the beauty of the situation, *all* answe ing to the descriptions of the *Fountain of the Sun*, given by ancie writers, and, in reference to the ruins, rendering the conjectu more probable, that they are those of the Temple of Ammon.'

That the sentiments of the well informed and very acu Major Rennell coincide with those of Sir W. Young, in th present essay, will appear from the following passages:

'The report of Mr. Horneman is no less favourable to the former idea, of its being the OASIS of AMMON; and the remains of the Egyptian structure within it, those of the famed Temple of Jupiter Ammon: the honour of which original discovery is due to Mr. Browne. For, in addition to what may be deemed the *inner* temple, Mr. Horneman has viewed the foundations indicated by Mr. Browne, in circumference some hundred paces; and even some remains of the walls themselves, of what may be supposed to have been the *including* temple; the materials of which are probably existing in the construction of the stone houses of a town, estimated to contain a populaion of six to seven thousand persons. We need no longer to entertain a doubt, founded on the disappearance of the materials of the temple and palace described by the ancients. Besides, on a review of the subject, so many particulars accord with the ancient descriptions; such as the dimensions, and accordance of geographical situation; the fruits, the copious fountains, fertility of soil; and finally, although a negative proof, perhaps one of the strongest circumstances of all, the declaration of the inhabitants, that "no other fertile spot exists in the vicinity; or nearer than the Lesser Oasis."

'A proof of the populousness and affluence of the ancient state of Ammon, exists in the numerous catacombs pointed out to, or visited by, Browne and Horneman: and by the probability that the rocky hill on which the modern town stands, is also full of catacombs. Such are indeed known to exist within the habitations of the people of the neighbouring village of Ummesogeir; which may thence be supposed, notwithstanding its present miserable state, to have been a flourishing appendage to ancient Ammon: and might probably have been the *Siropum* of Ptolemy.'

On the 29th of September, the caravan departed from Siwah, on its way to Schiacha: at which latter place, Mr. Horneman and his servant were brought into circumstances of great danger. The Siwahans, suspecting the two travellers to be spies and Christians, pursued them with an armed force to Schiacha; and they escaped destruction only by the firmness and address of Mr. Horneman, who boldly personated the Mussulman:—not having travelled into Africa in order to die a martyr to the Christian faith.

In his progress westward to Augila and thence to the confines of Temissa, Mr. H. made his observations on the nature of the soil, the mountains, the manners of the inhabitants, &c. and the journal is occasionally interspersed with an anecdote. On its arrival at Temissa, the inhabitants greeted the caravan with many welcomes:

'They put questions without number, concerning our health, intermingling wishes for peace in the Arabian style and manner. The incessant repetition of the same words appeared to me extraordinary, but I was soon given to understand, that it denoted polite manners according to usage of the country. The more noble and educated the man, the oftener did he repeat his questions. A well dressed young man attracted my particular attention, as an adept in the perseverance and redundancy of salutation. Accosting an Arab of Augila, he gave him his hand, and detained him a considerable time with his civilities, when the Arab being obliged to advance with greater speed to come up again with his companions, the youth of Fezzan thought he should appear deficient in good manners, if he quitted him so soon: for near half a mile he kept running by his horse, whilst all his conversation was, How dost thou fare? Well, how art thou thyself? Praised be God thou art arrived in peace! God grant thee peace! How dost thou do, &c. &c.'

From Temissa, the route was continued to Zuila, a place of some importance in Fezzan; and from Zuila towards Mourzouk. At an intermediate village, Hemara, says Mr. H.

'I was regaled with the great Fezzan dainty of locusts or grasshoppers, and a drink called *lugibi*. The latter is composed of the juice of date trees, and when fresh is sweet and agreeable enough to the taste, but is apt to produce flatulencies and diarrhœa. At first I did not relish the dried locusts, but when accustomed, grew fond of them: when eaten, the legs and wings are broken off and the inner part is scooped out, and what remains has a flavour similar to that of red herrings, but more delicious.'

The following is a description of the audience with the Sultan of Fezzan:

'The Sultan had posted himself on a rising ground, attended by a numerous court, and a multitude of his subjects.

'Our caravan halted, and every person of the caravan, of any importance, dismounted to salute him. With others I approached, and found the sultan seated on an old-fashioned elbow chair, covered with a cloth striped red and green, and placed at the extremity of an oval area, round which soldiers were drawn up, of but mean appearance. The sultan himself wore the Tripolitan vest, and over it a shirt or frock, embroidered with silver, in the Soudan manner. Close to him, on each side, were white Mamelukes and Negro slaves, with drawn sabres; behind these were six banners, and black and half-naked slaves, holding lances and halberds, of a fashion as old perhaps, as the times of Saladin. We entered the circle by an opening left facing the sultan, and about the middle of the area: according to the ceremonial of his court, we pulled off our slippers, and approached barefoot to kiss his imperial hand. Each having paid his compliment, alternately passed to right or left, and seated himself behind the sultan: the merchants being thus ranged in two equal groups on either side of the throne; lastly entered the Sheik of the pilgrims, with his sabre drawn, and kettle-drum, and green flag of Mecca borne before him. The pilgrims followed, chaunting praises to God, who had so far conducted them in safety; and continued their hymns until the Sultan was pleased to dismiss their leader, with a gracious promise of sending his royal present of dates and meat to every tent. This ceremony of audience being over, the Sultan remounted his horse and rode back to the city of Mourzouk;

zouk, preceded by kettle-drums and banners, and amidst his lancemen and halberdiers; whilst his courtiers, joined by the Arabs of our caravan, pranced and curvetted their horses on each flank of the procession.'

The account of Fezzan is not very interesting: but the facts related may easily be credited:—an arbitrary Sultan, his ministers and slaves oppressive, the people poor and spiritless,—all this is in exact conformity with the laws which govern the moral world; and whether we visit the islands of the Southern Ocean, or the African islands amid their seas of sand, we meet with no anomalies in this respect. The population of Fezzan consists of 70,000 persons: all without exception professing the Mohammedan religion. The manners of the women are not very correct: the houses are ill built: the common food is dates; and a rich man at Mourzouk is one *who eats meat and bread every day*:

'The commerce of Fezzan (according to Mr. H.) is considerable, but consists merely of foreign merchandize. From October to February, Mourzouk is the great market and place of resort for various caravans from Cairo, Bengasi, Tripoly, Gadames, Twat, and Soudan, and for other smaller troops of traders, such as Tibboes of Rechade, Tuaricks, and Arabs. The trade from Cairo is carried on by the merchants of *Augila*; that from Tripoly, chiefly by the inhabitants of *Sockna*, and but by few either of Fezzan or Tripoly. The commerce with Soudan, is conducted by way of the *Tuarrick Colluvi*, by the native *Agades*; the trade with Bornou is managed by the *Tibboes* of *Bilma*. The caravans coming to Mourzouk from the south or west, bring, as articles of commerce, slaves of both sexes, ostrich feathers, zibette, tiger skins, and gold, partly in dust, partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments, for the people of interior Africa. From *Bornou* copper is imported in great quantity. Cairo sends silks, *melayes* (striped blue and white calicoes), woollen cloths, glass, imitations of coral, beads for bracelets, and likewise an assortment of East India goods. The merchants of *Bengasi*, who, usually join the caravan from Cairo at *Augila*, import tobacco manufactured for chewing, or snuff, and sundry wares fabricated in Turkey.

'The caravan from Tripoly, chiefly deals in paper, false corals, fire-arms, sabres, knives, and the cloths called *abbes*, and in red worsted caps. Those trading from *Gadames*, bring nearly the same articles. The smaller caravans of *Tuaricks* and *Arabs*, import butter, oil, fat, and corn; and those coming from the more southern districts, bring senna, ostrich feathers, and camels for the slaughter-house.'

The journal of Mr. Horneman terminates with his arrival at Mourzouk; and perhaps many who peruse it, in search of information and amusement, will find themselves disappointed. The fault, however, is not with Mr. H.: the circumstances in which he was placed necessarily made his detail barren and dry. A caravan passes the desert: it arrives at a village, at a well, or at a narrow pass: adventures could not abound; and they were not to be sought, since only those which were dangerous could occur. Some towns were passed in the route: but they contained little that was worthy of notice; no relicts of antient learning; no traces of forgotten art: nothing which genius had consecrated, and destined to survive the attacks of time and chance.

If, however, Mr. H.'s narrative should not at first appear very interesting, the critical observations of Major Rennell prove it to be important. With this skilful and attentive geographer, no circumstance is trifling and useless: to him it is of moment whether the road is bad or good, whether it winds through the sinuosities of vallies, or stretches across the desert of sand: he attends to the writer's statements on the report of travelling merchants, and he compares these reports with the testimonies of Pliny and Herodotus. The fame of Major Rennell is so well established, that it is unnecessary for us to recommend to the learned and ingenious, the perusal of his Geographical Illustrations of the present travels.—In a letter sent from Tripoly, (19th August 1799.) Mr. H. says that, according to the invariable report of all whom he consulted, the Niger, in a direction south of Darfour, runs into the Nile: but Major Rennell endeavours, in the Appendix (p. 162.), to shew the improbability of such a fact.

From Mr. Marsden's brief observations on the language of Siwah, it appears that some affinity exists between this language and that of the inhabitants of Mount Atlas, called Shilha: so much, indeed, as to induce Mr. M. to consider the dialects of these two countries, distant from each other by the whole breadth of Africa, as one and the same.

We are sorry to learn, from Sir William Young's Introduction, that this laudable Society do not find themselves in such prosperous circumstances, with respect to numbers and contributions, as the nature of their undertaking deserves and the prosecution of it requires: but we trust that they will not long be authorized to make a statement so unpleasant to themselves, and so unfavourable to the reputation of our country.

Art. II. *Lectures on the Gospel of St. Matthew;* delivered in the Parish Church of St. James, Westminster, in the Years 1798, 1799, 1800, and 1801. By the Right Rev. Beilby Porteus, D. D. Bishop of London. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 13s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

Whatever may be the degeneracy of modern times, the reverence with which numerous assemblies, of all ranks, attend to receive instruction from eminent characters in the church, may be considered as some proof that there still subsist among men a love of truth and a desire for religious knowledge. This circumstance must be grateful to those who are appointed to preside over the established church, when they reflect that they in particular have the opportunity of effecting extensive good; and when they find themselves enabled, by a timely exertion of their powers, to influence the national conduct and the popular morals. The Bishop of London has shewn himself, in former instances, as well as on the present occasion, duly sensible of the authority which he possesses in his exalted station, and of the sacred responsibility attached to it. At a period of the late disastrous war, when the publications of the day and the great corruption of the times seemed to call for a more than ordinary exertion from the ministers of religion, this respectable prelate was induced to come forwards in his official capacity, and to try whether by good and seasonable admonitions he might arrest the progress of vice, and stem the torrent of infidelity, in our great and too luxurious metropolis. With this pious intention, like another Chrysostom in the capital of the east, he entered on a course of lectures on the Gospel of St. Matthew, and delivered them at his own parish church of St. James, during the season of Lent; intimating his intention of continuing them annually, as long as the exigency of the times might require them. The general approbation which was bestowed on these lectures at the time of their delivery, by the inhabitants of our capital, has suggested to their Diocesan the pleasing hope of being still more useful to the community by presenting those discourses to the world, and thus making them *publici juris.*

Most of our readers are so well acquainted with the professional merits of this Right Rev. author, from former productions of his pen, and from the opinion which we have had occasion to give of his works, that it will be unnecessary to enter into any preliminary remarks on the subject. We shall therefore proceed to give an account of the contents of these volumes, and to point out, as we proceed, such passages as may appear more especially worthy of notice.

The first volume contains thirteen lectures, on the following subjects.—View of the Sacred writings.—The Wise Men at Bethlehem.—The Baptist.—The Temptation of Christ.—Choice of Apostles.—Sermon on the Mount.—Continuation of the Same.—The Roman Centurion.—Our Lord's Instructions to his Apostles.—The Sabbath, the Demoniacs, &c.—On Parables.—Parable of the Sower.—Parable of the Tares.

In lecture 1st. after a compendious view of the books of the Old Testament, the learned author descends to the Gospels in the New, and thus describes the nature of their contents;

'It is these that recount those wonderful and important events with which the Christian religion and the divine Author of it were introduced into the world, and which have produced so great a change in the principles, the manners, the morals, and the temporal as well as the spiritual condition of mankind. They relate the first appearance of Christ upon earth; his extraordinary and miraculous birth; the testimony borne to him by his forerunner John the Baptist; his temptation in the wilderness; the opening of his divine commission; the pure, the perfect, the sublime morality which he taught, especially in his inimitable sermon from the mount; the infinite superiority he shewed to every other moral teacher, both in the matter and manner of his discourses; more particularly by crushing vice in its very cradle, in the first risings of wicked desires and propensities in the heart; by giving a decided preference of the mild, gentle, passive, conciliating virtues, to that violent, vindictive, high-spirited, unforgiving temper, which has been always too much the favourite character of the world; by requiring us to forgive our very enemies, and to do good to them that hate us; by excluding from our devotions, our alms, and all our other virtues, all regard to fame, reputation, and applause; by laying down two great general principles of morality, love to God and love to mankind, and deducing from thence every other human duty; by conveying his instructions under the easy, familiar, and impressive form of parables; by expressing himself in a tone of dignity and authority unknown before; by exemplifying every virtue that he taught in his own unblemished and perfect life and conversation; and above all, by adding those awful sanctions, which he alone, of all moral instructors, had the power to hold out, eternal rewards to the virtuous, and eternal punishments to the wicked. The sacred narrative then represents to us the high character he assumed; the claim he made to a divine original; the wonderful miracles he wrought in proof of his divinity; the various prophecies which plainly marked him out as the Messiah, the great deliverer of the Jews; the declarations he made, that he came to offer himself a sacrifice for the sins of all mankind; the cruel indignities, sufferings, and persecutions, to which, in consequence of this great design, he was exposed; the accomplishment of it by the painful and ignominious death to which he submitted; by his resurrection after three days from the grave; by his ascension into heaven; by his sitting there at the right hand of God, and performing the office of a mediator and an intercessor for the sinful sons of men, till he comes a second time in his glory, to sit in judgment on all mankind, and decide their final doom of happiness or misery for ever.'

A note contains the quotation of a passage inserted in MS. by the late Sir William Jones at the end of his Bible, in which he bears his strong testimony to the exquisite beauty and truth of the sacred writings; and the Bishop then proceeds:

> 'It is in these writing, and there only, that we are informed from authority of the immortality of the soul, of a general resurrection from the dead, of a future judgment, of a state of eternal happiness to the good, and of eternal misery to the bad. It is there we are made acquainted with the fall of our first parents from a state of innocence and happiness; with the guilt, corruption, and misery, which this sad event brought on all their posterity; which, together with their own personal and voluntary transgressions, rendered them obnoxious to God's severest punishments. But, to our inexpressible comfort, we are further told in this divine book, that God is full of mercy, compassion, and goodness; that he is not extreme to mark what is done amiss; that he willeth not the death of a sinner, but rather that he should turn from his wickedness, and save his soul alive. In pity therefore to mankind, he was pleased to provide a remedy for their dreadful state. He was pleased to adopt a measure which should at once satisfy his justice, shew his extreme abhorrence of sin, make a sufficient atonement for the sins of the whole world, and release all who accepted the terms proposed to them from the punishment they had deserved. This was nothing less than the death of his son Jesus Christ, whom he sent into the world to take our nature upon him, to teach us a most holy, pure, and benevolent religion, to reform us both by his precepts and example; and lastly, to die for our sins, and to rise again for our justification. By him and his evangelists and apostles we are assured, that if we sincerely repent of our sins, and firmly believe in him and his Gospel, we shall, for the sake of his sufferings and his righteousness, have all our transgressions forgiven and blotted out, shall be *justified*, that is, considered as innocent in the sight of God, shall have the assistance of his Holy Spirit for our future conduct; and if we persevere to the end in a uniform (though, from the infirmity of our nature, imperfect) obedience to all the laws of Christ, shall, through his merits, be rewarded with everlasting glory in the life to come.'

We must confess ourselves at a loss to understand on what Scripture authorities the worthy Bishop grounds some of the doctrines here advanced; especially the statement respecting the Christian scheme being a plan to *satisfy the Divine Justice.* What can be the idea which Calvin and his followers have entertained of a perfect and yet a vindictive Being? It appears to us that theologians have fallen into a wide error on points of this nature, by understanding St. Paul in a literal sense, when he is using figurative language, accommodated to the Jewish habits and prejudices on the one hand, and to the rites and cere nies of Heathen nations on the other.

Towards the conclusion of this lecture, the Bishop t states the plan of his work:

'First, to explain and illustrate those passages of holy writ, wl are in any degree difficult and obscure.

'2dly. To point out, as they occur in the sacred writings, chief leading fundamental principles and doctrines of the Chris religion.

'3dly. To confirm and strengthen your faith, by calling y attention to those strong internal marks of the truth and divine thority of the Christian religion, which present themselves to u almost every page of the Gospel.

'4thly. To lay before you the great moral precepts of the C pel, to press them home upon your consciences and your hearts, render them effectual to the important ends they were intended serve; namely, the due government of your passions, the regula of your conduct, and the attainment of everlasting life.'

In the 2d lecture, we find little that is very interesting new respecting the wise men of the East.—In the next, on character of the Baptist, we are surprised to observe the *at ment* represented as confirmed by the conduct and expressi of that fore-runner: expressions which must be grievou tortured to bear such a meaning! The excellent practical marks, however, at the conclusion of this lecture, make am amends for such parts as may be misapplied or misundersto

The temptation in the wilderness, which the Bishop in prets as a real and not a visionary transaction, is not suppo by arguments of sufficient strength to invalidate the oppo conclusions of the learned Mr. Farmer on that subject: but application, which is made of this portion of Scripture, pres a very just and salutary lesson of vigilance and self-governm —On the evidence for the truth of our Saviour's mirac the usual arguments are advanced. The question is well st in the following passage, whether the inference be admitte logical or not:

'What now shall we say to doctrines such as these delivered such a person as our Lord appeared to be? Is it probable, is it sible that the reputed son of a poor mechanic could, by the r force of argument or persuasion, induce vast numbers of his coun men to embrace opinions and practices so directly opposite to e propensity of their hearts, to every sentiment they had imbi every principle they had acted upon from their earliest years? the fact is, that he *did* prevail on multitudes to do so; and there he *must* have had means of conviction superior to all human eloqu or reasoning; that is, he must have convinced his hearers by miracles he wrought, that all power in heaven and in earth given to him, and that every precept he delivered, and every d t trine he taught, was the voice of God himself. Without this it is utterly impossible to give any rational account of his success.

‘ In order to set this argument in a still stronger point of view, let us consider what the effect actually was in a case where a new religion was proposed without any support from miracles. That same impostor Mahomet, to whom I before alluded, began his mission with every advantage that could arise from personal figure, from insinuating manners, from a commanding eloquence, from an ardent enterprising spirit, from considerable wealth, and from powerful connections. Yet with all these advantages, and with every artifice and every dexterous contrivance to recommend his new religion to his countrymen, in the space of three years he made not many more than six converts, and those principally of his own family, relations, and most intimate friends. And his progress was but very slow for nine years after this, till he began to make use of force; and then his victorious arms, not his arguments, carried his religion triumphantly over almost all the eastern world.

‘ It appears therefore, that without the assistance either of miracles or of the sword, no religion can be propagated with such rapidity, and to such an extent, as the Christian was, both during our Saviour's life time, and after his death. For there is, I believe, no instance in the history of mankind of such an effect being produced, without either the one or the other. Now of force we know that Jesus never did make use; the unavoidable consequence is, that the miracles ascribed to him were actually wrought by him.’

Lecture 6th, which concludes the course for the first year, illustrates and enforces in a judicious manner the former part of the sermon on the mount; terminating with a serious and becoming admonition to the different parts of the audience, on their conduct subsequently to the season of Lent.

In the next discourse, the same subject is continued, and many useful and practical remarks are introduced. The conduct of the centurion is considered in contrast with that of the Jewish people, and his merits are ably displayed.

‘ The honest centurion, on the contrary, without any Judaical prejudices to distort his understanding, without asking any ill-timed and impertinent questions about the birth or family of Christ, attends only to the facts before him. He had heard of Jesus, had heard of his unblemished life, his heavenly doctrines, his numerous and astonishing miracles, had heard them confirmed by such testimony as no ingenuous mind could resist. He immediately surrenders himself up to such convincing evidence; and so far from requiring (as the Jews continually did, and as modern sceptics still do) more and stronger proofs, he seems afraid of shewing the slightest distrust of our Saviour's power. He declares his belief of his being able to perform a miracle at any distance; and entreats him not to give himself the trouble of coming to his house in person, but to speak the word only and his servant should be healed.

'This, then, is the disposition of mind we
larly to cultivate; that freedom from self-suffici
prejudice of every kind, that simplicity and singl
is open to conviction, and receives, without resis
pressions of truth. It is the want of this, not o
makes infidels in Europe as it did at first in As
ciple operating in different ways which now im
collusion those miracles which the Jews ascri
which now rejects all *human testimony*, as it fo
perceptions of sense.'

The inference here drawn ought to have
assigned to it, since the same argument
the Pope, for implicit submission to any
decrees. In a subsequent page, the Bisho
fulness of a military life, and considers the
'studiously placing it in an *honourable and*
They do not appear to us to go thus far,
the state of society as they found it, without
to civil institutions; resting in the mean whi
ration of society, on the gradual operation
principles which, if ever they should be f
practised, would render a soldier's calling n
unknown.

The 9th lecture comprizes several very
discussed in a manner which is worthy of
conviction of the apostles that the charac
really that which it pretended to be, and tha
to fulfil all his promises, is well argued fro
encountering all the difficulties and dangers
followers, and which he himself always repr
the most forcible manner.

A good remark occurs on the rise of pers

'It should be remembered, that the wildest
persecution did not take place till the world wa
barity, ignorance, bigotry, and superstition; t
dominated in every thing, in the form of govern
of the laws, in the tenure of lands, in the adm
itself; and till the Scriptures were shut up in a
were therefore unknown to the people. It was
the Gospel, but from a total *ignorance* of the G
perversion of its true temper, genius, and spirit,
and enormities arose.'

Lecture 10th contains many sensible rem
and use of the Sabbath: in which we evid
same train of sentiments, that are displa
author in a valuable sermon on this subjec
on the nature and use of Parables, after sev

tions, a comparison is drawn between those of our Saviour and those of antient writers in general: which we should extract if our limits would permit.

The next lecture, on the parable of the Sower, abounds with a variety of useful reflections, by far too numerous for us to select.—We shall only observe that the *origin of evil* is here discussed, and attributed solely and entirely to the agency of the *devil*. Our readers shall decide whether this be the most *effectual* method of cutting that gordian knot!

The concluding discourse in the first volume, on the parable of the Tares, also abounds with practical and useful lessons of virtue. To evince the important truth that sinners, though apparently unpunished, are yet inwardly suffering the penalties of guilt, the Bishop thus argues:

'After all it must be acknowledged, that there are numbers of worthless and profligate men, who go on for a considerable length of time, perhaps even to the end of their days, in a full tide of worldly prosperity, blessed with every thing that is thought most valuable in this life, wealth, power, rank, health, and strength, and enjoying all these advantages without interruption and alloy, "coming in no misfortune like other folk, and not plagued or afflicted like other men."

'These, it must be confessed, are strong symptoms of happiness, if we are to judge from appearances only. But does not every one know that happiness depends infinitely less upon external circumstances than on the internal comfort, content, and satisfaction of the mind? May I not appeal to every one here present, whether some of the acutest sufferings, and the most exquisite joys he has experienced, are not those which are confined to his own breast, which he enjoys in secrecy and in silence, in his retired and private moments, unobserved by the world, and independent on all exterior shew? "The heart only (says the wise man most truly) knoweth its own bitterness, and a stranger doth not intermeddle with its joy *." This then is the standard by which you must measure human happiness. You must not too hastily conclude that prosperity is felicity. In order to know whether these men are truly what they seem to be, you must follow them into their retirements, into their closets, and to their couches; and if you could then see the interior of their hearts, you would probably find them objects rather of pity than of envy. Whatever they may pretend, or whatever air of cheerfulness they may assume, it is utterly impossible that they, whose sole object is to gratify their passions without the least regard to the feelings of others; who are corrupting all around them by their conversation and their example, or spreading ruin, misery, and desolation over the world by their inordinate ambition; who not only live in a constant violation of the commands of their Maker, but perhaps even deny his existence, renounce his authority, and treat every thing

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' * Prov. xiv. 10.'

serious and religious with derision and contempt: it is, I sa
impossible that these men, whatever external magnificence
may surround them, can enjoy that peace and comfort an
of mind, which alone constitutes real and substantial happi
without which every thing else is insipid and unsatisfact
secret conciousness that they are acting wrong, that they ar
ing and debasing their nature, and wasting their time in
worthy, and mischievous pursuits; frequent pangs of re
the irreparable injuries they have done to those whom they
trayed or oppressed, and whose peace and comfort they
ever destroyed; a dread of that Almighty Being, whom t
resisted and insulted; a fear of death, and an apprehension
punishment hereafter, which, though they affect to disbel
despise, they cannot help knowing to be possible, and fee
they deserve; all these reflections, which, in spite of thei
efforts to stifle them, will very often force themselves u
minds, are sufficient to counteract every other advantage t
sess, and to embitter every enjoyment of their lives. All s
outwardly gay and happy, and all within shall be joyless and
they shall seem to have every thing they wish, and in fact, have
that affords them any genuine satisfaction, or preserves th
the internal wretchedness that perpetually haunts them. "
the Psalmist expresses it) gives them their heart's desire, a
leanness withal into their souls*;" that is, a total incap
deriving any true comfort from the blessings they possess.'

Volume II. contains eleven lectures on the followi
jects.—History of Herod, &c.—The Transfiguratio
rable of the unforgiving Servant.—Means of attaining
Life.—The Marriage Feast.—Destruction of Jerusalem
Virgins, Talents, Day of Judgement.—The Lord's Su
Christ before Pilate.—Doctrine of Redemption.—T
steries of Christianity.

As we have entered so largely into a consideration
contents of the first volume, we shall for the most pa
our readers to form a judgment for themselves respect
second; in which the subjects are treated in a similar
and (generally speaking) merit the reader's attention
valuable maxims and practical morality.—We shall, h
point out one or two passages, as inducements to be
acquainted with the contents, or as calling for remark.
ing of the flagitious character of Herod, the Bishop obs

'The Scriptures every where rank these vices in the nu
those *presumptuous* sins, which, in a future life, will exper
severest marks of divine displeasure. The world indeed, trea
with more indulgence. They are excused and palliated, a
defended on the ground of human frailty, of natural constitut
strong passions, and invincible temptations; and they are g

'* Psalm, cvi. 15.'

cor

önsidered and represented in various popular performances (espe-
ially in those imported from foreign countries) as associated with
any amiable virtues, with goodness of heart, with high principles
f honour, with benevolence, compassion, humanity, aad generosity.
ut whatever gentle names may be given to sensuality and licentious-
ess, whatever specious apologies may be made for them, whatever
it or talents may be employed in rendering them popular and fashion-
ble, whatever numbers, whatever examples may sanction or authorize
em, it is impossible that any thing can do away their natural turpitude
d deformity, or avert those punishments which the Gospel has de-
unced against them. They are represented there as things that
ght not even to be *named* among Christians, as defiling the man,
warring against the soul, as grieving the Spirit of God, as render-
g men incapable of inheriting the kingdom of heaven, as exposing
em to the indignation of Him who is of purer eyes than to behold
iquity *. And as if men had endeavoured in those days as well as in
ir own, to soften and extenuate and explain away the guilt of licen-
ousness, the apostle adds, with great solemnity and great earnestness,
Let no man deceive you with *vain* words: for because of these
ings cometh the wrath of God upon the children of disobe-
ence. †"

' Let every man then that pretends to be a Christian, and lives in
e habitual practice of the vices here condemned, weigh well these
emendous words. If there be any truth in the Gospel, they will
ot be *vain* words; nor will offences of this nature ever pass unno-
iced or unpunished by the righteous Governor of the world.

' These remarks are not introduced here without reason. It is
he peculiar prevalence of these very vices at this moment which de-
ands such animadversions as these: a prevalence which I infer
ot merely from an imaginary estimate of the low state of morals
mongst us, founded on rumour, on conjecture, or misconstruction,
ut from facts too well ascertained, and which obtrude themselves on
e notice of every observing mind ‡. I mean those daring violations
f the nuptial contract, and the frequent divorces resulting from them,
hich seem daily gaining ground in this kingdom. This is a most
elancholy and incontrovertible proof of increasing depravity amongst
, and I am sorry to add, of depravity of the very deepest dye; for
stances have not long since occurred, in which the guilt of the
rties too nearly resembled that of Herod, combining the two atro-
ous crimes of adultery and incest! Surely such enormities as these
e enough to make us tremble, and loudly call for the interposition
the legislature, lest they bring down upon us the just vengeance
an offended God. " Shall I not visit for these things, saith the
ord! Shall not my soul be avenged on such a nation as this § ?"

In the 18th lecture, the R. R. author takes occasion to
force the duty of obedience to established governments; and
maintain the happiness of those who would reject all ' wild

' * Ephes. v. 3. Matth. xv. 18. 1 Pet. ii. 11. 1 Cor. vi. 9, 10.
abak. i. 13.' ' † Ephes. v, 6.' ' ‡ In the Spring of
e year 1800.' ' § Jer. v. 9,'

projects and destructive theories,' and refrain from all attemp to subvert 'the most ancient and venerable institutions.' W cannot but think that here the Bishop speaks too much *at larg* Will he assert that superior happiness would have been th portion of this country, if we had continued to revere the 'ancient and venerable institution' of popery; or had preferred th dominion of the 2d James to the empire of Freedom introduced by the Revolution? What, then, would have become o that establishment of which he is now so dignified a member or of that family under whose government he has the happines of living?

In describing the conduct of Pilate, the following judicious conclusion is drawn in favor of the principles of Christianity:

> 'Could any thing like this have happened in this country? We all know that it is impossible. We all know that no dangers, no threats, no fears, either of Cæsar or of the people, could ever induce a British judge to condemn to death a man, whom he in his conscience believed to be innocent. And what is it that produces this difference between a Roman and a British judge? It is this: that the former had no other principle to govern his conduct but natural reason, or what would now be called philosophy; which, though it would sometimes point out to him the path of duty, yet could never inspire him with fortitude enough to persevere in it in critical and dangerous circumstances; in opposition to the frowns of a tyrant, or the clamours of a multitude. Whereas the British judge, in addition to his natural sentiments of right and wrong, and the dictates of the moral sense, has the principle of *religion* also to influence his heart: he has the unerring and inflexible rules of evangelical rectitude to guide him; he has that which will vanquish every other fear, the *fear of God*, before his eyes. He knows that he himself must one day stand before the Judge of all; and *that* consideration keeps him firm to his duty, be the dangers that surround him ever so formidable and tremendous.
>
> 'This is one, among a thousand other proofs, of the benefits we derive, even in the present life, from the Christian revelation. It has, in fact, had a most salutary and beneficial influence on our most important *temporal* interests. Its beneficent spirit has spread itself through all the different relations and modifications of human society, and communicated its kindly influence to almost every public and private concern of mankind. It has not only purified, as we have seen, the administration of justice: but it has insensibly worked itself into the inmost frame and constitution of civil societies. It has given a tinge to the complexion of their governments, and to the temper of their laws. It has softened the rigour of despotism, and lessened, in some degree, the horrors of war. It has descended into families, has diminished the pressure of private tyranny, improved every domestic endearment, given tenderness to the parent, humanity to the master, respect to superiors, to inferiors security and ease; and left, in short, the most evident traces of its benevolent

spirit in all the various subordinations, dependencies, and connections of social life.'

The final lecture, on the *mysteries* of the Christian Religion, is consistent with the principles laid down and enforced in different parts of the work. As we have occasionally remarked on passages of this nature, we shall trespass no longer on the attention of our readers; except by just noticing a mistake which the learned author seems to have made with regard to the form of words used in the ceremony of Baptism. It does *not* appear from the Acts, that the form given in St. Matthew was used by the first Christians; and it is very extraordinary that even Justin Martyr, in his dialogue with Trypho the Jew, does not bring that passage forwards in his support.—To conclude; although we cannot coincide with the R. R. author in every opinion and speculative maxim which he has advanced, yet there remains abundance of valuable matter in these volumes, which deserves the attention of the serious and well disposed. Indeed, we only join the general voice in bearing this testimony to the merit of these lectures; and we heartily wish that the Bishop of London may live to see that improvement and reform in the morals of his Diocese, to which he has so assiduously contributed by the present laudable and pious undertaking.

Art. III. *The Natural History of Oviparous Quadrupeds and Serpents.* Arranged and published from the Papers and Collections of the Count de Buffon, by the Count de la Cepède, keeper of the Royal Cabinet, and Member of the Academies and Societies of Dijon, Lyons, Bourdeaux, Rome, Stockholm, &c. &c. Illustrated with Copperplates. Translated by Robert Kerr, F.R. & A.S.S. Ed. 8vo. 4 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

As we duly noticed the Count de la Cepède's history of Oviparous Quadrupeds * on its original appearance, we have at present only to direct our attention to the plan and merits of the translation which is now offered to the English reader.

To the generality of translations, we must confess that we are by no means partial. He who attempts to transfuse into another idiom the exact amount of an author's sentiments, and to invest them in their new garb with ease and elegance, undertakes a task which is perhaps more arduous and certainly more slavish than that of composing an original work.

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* See M. R. vol. lxxix. p. 600.; and N. S. vol. ii. p. 504.

Scarcely will a man of genius and enlarged views submit to the drudgery of painfully exhibiting, for any length of time, the ideas of another; of catching the sense and spirit, without adopting the phraseology of the original; of weighing the precise import of the several turns of expression; and of struggling to retain those more delicate and evanescent shades of wit or meaning, which are ever ready to elude his grasp. Hence, no doubt, it happens that this species of employment so frequently devolves on literary hirelings, or needy adventurers, who betray their hurry or their ignorance in every page. We, who speak from feeling and experience, seldom pass more irksome hours, than when our luckless stars condemn us to the perusal of an ordinary version of a well written French performance. Some portion of the sense is usually suppressed, some extraneous matter is forced into the copy, and ideas are divested of their sprightliness, or are miserably distorted. The whole seems stiff, aukward, and disjointed; constantly reminding us of Denham's pointed couplet,

> " *Such is our pride, our folly, or our fate,*
> *That none but those who cannot write, translate.*"

If these strictures be founded in truth, and we firmly believe that they are, no ordinary praise should attach to every exception from the general predicament; and the public ought to acknowlege with gratitude and favour the services of a gentleman of science, who condescends to fill the office of interpreter with persevering fidelity and spirit.

In consequence of a very scrupulous examination of the volumes now before us, we are enabled to announce them to our readers in the character of a fair and genuine representation of the original work. Hardly have we detected a single gallicism; and, until Mr. K. convinced us of the contrary, we could not have supposed that a French count would appear to such advantage in an English dress. We must add, however, that the volumes are not exempt from those violations of established syntax and orthography, which betray inattention in the translator or his printer.

With respect to certain alterations and additions, naturally suggested by the present state of zoological knowlege, we could wish that they had been wholly consigned to the notes, or thrown into an appendix; especially as, in one or two instances, we are not duly warned of the matter which is interposed. Mr. Kerr's notes, given as such, though short and less frequent than we could desire, are extremely pertinent, and serve as proper correctives of the precipitate conclusions and extravagant fancies of the disciple and coadjutor of Buffon:

we had almost said of Buffon himself; for it is well known that he contributed a large portion of the materials.

Mr. Kerr has introduced the second volume with an able translation of the Linnéan preface to the class *amphibia;* and most of his readers, we are inclined to believe, will thank him for this additional trouble. The eulogy of Buffon, which, in the original, approaches to bombast, seems to be rendered with less regard to accuracy of writing than the work to which it is prefixed.

Of the plates, we have only to observe that, though not executed in the first style of engraving, they will be found of real service in the perusal of the descriptions.

We shall now transcribe a few passages as samples of the translator's manner.

' AMBOINA LIZARD.

' We have here used the trivial name of Amboina Lizard, following the Systema Naturæ, for a species which might have been called the crested lizard, after Daubenton, in consequence of a remarkable crested ridge of scales, which extends from the head to the extremity of the tail. This crest is usually composed of seventy long and pointed scales on the back: At the root of the tail it is raised into a very long and broad fin, composed of fourteen or fifteen cartilaginous rays, armed at its upper edge with small sharp scales, which mostly point backwards.

' This species, which may be considered as the Asiatic representative of the American basilisk, is found in Amboina and Java, according to Hornstedt and Schlosser, who have first described it. It has likewise considerable affinity with the dragon, and the other lizards having compressed tails, and indented crests on the back; its head being almost quadrangular, flattened on the top, and covered by tubercles and large scales. The eyes are large, and the orifices of the nostrils project. The openings of the ears are so large, as to discover the tympanum or drum of the ear. The underside of the head resembles a flattened pouch, much wrinkled, which has been called a collar by some writers. The tongue is thick, fleshy, and very slightly divided. The teeth are close set and pointed, and grow larger the farther they are placed backwards in the mouth; eight of the upper and six of the lower teeth in front being rounded, sharp pointed, turned obliquely outwards, and separated by a small interval on each side from the larger back teeth, which are compared to grinders. In this circumstance of form and arrangement of the teeth, this species resembles the dragon already described.

' All the five toes of the feet both before and behind, have claws; and they are all edged on each side by a thin sharp serrated membrane. The tail is almost three times as long as the body. The head and the pouch or collar on its under side are greenish, with white lines or streaks. The crest and back are tawny of different shades. The belly is whitish grey, and the sides are marked with white blotches or large streaks, which extend down the legs to the feet. In some individuals, according to Hornstedt, the general colour is greenish with black streaks, the belly being whitish. The male differs from the female, in having the crest considerably higher, and by the colours being more lively.

‘ This species is of considerable size, being sometimes three or even four feet long. Besides its teeth and claws, which are formidable weapons, its crested back and the tail are both useful in defending it against enemies. Its feet are formed for climbing trees with great readiness, and are admirably adapted for taking fast hold of its prey. The tubercles and large scales, with which its head is covered, defend it very powerfully against injuries. From all these means of defence and of attack, one might very readily presume that this species was voracious, and destructive to many of the smaller animals: But its opposite dispositions furnish a strong proof of the caution which ought to be preserved, in forming a judgment on the general manners and habits of any animal, from particular features in its external form; for we are certain, that these dispositions are very strongly modified by the interior organization, and even by a combination of several local circumstances of greater or lesser permanency.

‘ This species inhabits the unfrequented banks of large rivers, living on small worms, and climbs the trees in search of fruits and seeds. It deposits its eggs on sand banks and small islands, as if anxious to place them *out from* the reach of danger. It is extremely timid, and flies at the smallest noise, without attempting any defence, throwing itself into the water to escape from danger, and making haste to conceal itself under rocks and stones. It swims with great readiness, being greatly assisted by the elevated membrane on its tail.

‘ Besides giving it gentle and inoffensive manners, the nature of the food of this species, which is chiefly fruits, renders its flesh superior in flavour, to that of other species which feed on grosser nourishment, It is even considered as preferable in this respect to the guana; and this unfortunate excellence occasions it to be much sought after in the countries which it inhabits. It even allows itself to be taken by the hand, without the smallest resistance, and without even any cry or sign of distress. This tranquil derilection of life has been attributed by many to stupidity, when perhaps it is entirely owing to its mode of feeding, which, never giving occasion for any exercise of its strength or weapons, prevents it from knowing their powers as a means of defence: But mankind has often fallen into a similar error, contemning the less brilliant though infinitely more valuable qualities of peacefulness and innocence, while they applaud the opposite talents for war and destruction, which ought to be considered with horror and detestation.’—

“ Perhaps the most effectual remedy yet employed against the bite of venomous serpents, is caustic volatile alkali, given in water internally, as strong as it can be borne, and frequently repeated for a considerable time; besides applying the same to the wounded part. Eau de-luce, spirits of hartshorn, or any similar preparation of this substance that can be had, will answer the purpose. The same cure has been found effectual in stings from bees or wasps in the inside of the throat, which sometimes happen in the cyder countries, on drinking new cyder in which there happen to be half drowned bees or wasps [*]."

'The Boiga.

'This species is remarkably beautiful, combining the richest colours of the finest gems, with the splendour of burnished gold, mingled with dark brown shades, which contrast and heighten its brilliant ornaments. Among serpents, it may be said to hold the same rank, in these respects, with the humming bird among the birds.

'The head of the boiga is large in proportion to the body, and is covered by nine large scales in four rows. These, and the other scales on the head, are of a deep blue colour with a silky gloss; and a white bar, edged with black, extends along the upper jaw including both eyes. The whole upper surface of the body, to the extremity of the tail, is blue, changing its tints as differently exposed to the light, and sometimes changing to emerald green; and this beautiful ground is finely variegated along the back, by a kind of chain, or small streaks, of golden yellow, as if gilded. This splendid embroidery even preserves its lustre after the animal has been long kept in spirits; the scales seeming to be so many plates of enamelled gold fixed to the skin. The whole under surface of the head and body is of a silver white, separated from the changing blue of the back by a golden chain on each side, the whole length of the body.

'This fine blue and silver, ornamented with gold, by no means give a full idea of the beautiful embroidery of the boiga. We must take in all the reflected tints of silver colour, golden yellow, red, blue, green, and black, mingled and changing in the most extraordinary and beautiful manner possible; so that, when about to change its skin, it seems studded with a mixed assemblage of diamonds, emeralds, topazes, saphirs, and rubies, under a thin transparent veil of bluish chrystal. Thus, in the rich and torrid plains of India, where the most splendid gems abound, Nature seems to have chosen to re-unite them all, together with the noble metals, to adorn the brilliant robe of the boiga.

'This is one of the most slender of serpents in proportion to its length. The specimens in the royal collection, which exceed three feet in length, are hardly a few lines in diameter. The tail is almost as long as the body, and at the end is like a needle for fineness; yet is sometimes flattened above, below, and on the two sides, rendering it in some measure square. From the delicacy of its form, ts movements are necessarily extremely agile; so that, doubling itelf up several times, it can spring to a considerable distance with great swiftness. It can twine and twist itself, most readily and nimbly, around trees or other such bodies; climbing, or descending, r suspending itself, with the utmost facility.

'[*] The translator makes no apology for adding this paragraph, as is impossible to insist too much on a subject in which human life so immediately concerned.—T.'

'The boiga feeds on small birds, which it swallows very easily, notwithstanding the small diameter of its body, in consequence of the great distensibility of its jaws, throat, and stomach, common to it with other serpents: Yet we may suppose that it compresses and crushes its prey, previous to deglutition, in the same manner with the large serpents. It conceals itself under the foliage of trees, on purpose to surprise the small birds; and is said to attract them by a peculiar kind of whistling, to which the term of *song* has been applied in the description of Sebas museum: But we must consider this as an exaggeration; as its long divided tongue, and the conformation of its other organs of sound, are only adapted for producing a hiss or species of simple whistle, instead of forming a melodious assemblage of tones, like the song or warble of birds. Yet, if Nature has not ranked the boiga among the songsters of the woods, it seems to possess a more perfect instinct than other serpents, joined to more agile movements, and more magnificent ornament. In the isle of Borneo, the children play with the boiga without the smallest dread. They carry it in their hands, as innocent as themselves, and twist it about their necks, arms, and bodies, in a thousand directions. This circumstance brings to recollection, that fine emblem of candour and confidence imagined by the genius of the ancients: A child smiling on a snake, which holds him fast in his convolutions. But in that beautiful allegory, the snake is supposed to conceal a deadly poison; while the boiga returns caress for caress to the Indian children who fondle it, and seems pleased to be twisted about by their delicate hands.

'As the appearance of such nimble and innocent animals in the forests must be extremely beautiful, displaying their splendid colours, and gliding swiftly from branch to branch, without possessing the smallest noxious quality; we might regret that this species should require a degree of heat, greatly superior to that of our regions, and that it can only subsist near the tropics in Asia, Africa, and America. It has usually an hundred and sixty-six large plates, and an hundred and twenty-eight pairs of small plates, but is subject to considerable variation.'

According to this representation, the Boiga is not merely to be praised for its beauty, but may be said to fulfill the old maxim of combining *the wisdom of the Serpent with the harmlessness of the Dove*.

ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture and Mineralogy, present State and Circumstances of the County Wicklow*, with Observations on the Means of their Improvement, drawn up for the Consideration of the Dublin Society, instituted under the Authority of Parliament for the Improvement of Husbandry and internal Resources. By Robert Fraser, Esq. Author of the Agriculture Reports of Devon and Cornwall. 8vo. pp. 300. 7s. 6d. Boards. Dublin. 1801. London, Nicol.

THIS is the first county-report which has come before us relative to the state of Ireland, and we learn that it was expressly formed for the consideration of a society estaished (we suppose) nearly on the plan of our Board of Agrilture. Though the society apprizes the reader that it does t deem itself pledged to any opinion given by the author of is survey, the act of printing and publishing seems to proaim a certain degree of approbation; and this praise by inrence, joined to the motto adopted in the preface, (a parody f a passage in one of Pliny's letters) *multum scribendum non ulta*, excited in us the reasonable expectation of meeting ith a correct and well digested work. We must acknowlege, however, that with regard to correctness we have been disappointed; for Mr. Fraser, though he may have collected his materials with care, so far from having polished his composition by frequent revisions, seems in many places to have printed from his rough copy. We do not allude to errors of the press. Mr. Fraser continually inverts the proper order of words in a sentence, and places the verb before the nominative case: Thus 'In the central part of this district erects itself a vast mass;'—'Here takes its rise the Liffey,' &c. We meet also with such expressions as 'Argillite *posited on*'—'to the eastward *until within* two or three miles *beyond*'—'a cottage for dining *in on* parties'—'when *dry* it has an *arid* appearance,' &c.—and the language is often unnecessarily verbose. We hear of

> 'The grandeur of high and elevated mountains, the forcibly broken and uninterrupted strata they frequently exhibit, *the minerals with which they abound, the valuable metallic treasures these frequently contain*, excite the inquisitive mind to investigate the opinions, which have been formed, *of* reconciling these apparent irregularities to the general order of nature.'—'It would require years instead of months to describe the interesting objects it (the county of Wicklow) presents, with regard to *mineralogy* and geology.'—
>
> 'On the other side, it seems overhung by a bold and rugged mass, *with mountains upon mountains piled around.*—Passing on by the gap by a narrow defile, you are astonished at the perception in the bosom of this rugged crater of a polished surface of the most verdant meads, *interspersed with a variety of the leafy tribe.*'

To pass, however, from words to things.—The report is divided into three parts; the first being a geographical and mineralogical view of the county; the second including its agricultural state and circumstances; and the third containing investigations and results arranged under the several heads of inquiry suggested by the Dublin Society.

The following is the account of the situation, extent, divisions, and population of the County Wicklow:

'The county of Wicklow is situated in the province of Leinster, immediately south of Dublin, by which county and part of the county of Kildare it is bounded on the north. On the east it is bounded by St. George's Channel; by the county of Wexford on the south; on the west by the county of Kildare, and part of the counties of Dublin and Carlow.

'It extends from north to south thirty-two Irish, or forty and a half English miles. From east to west it extends twenty-six Irish, or thirty-three English miles. The county contains in Irish acres 305,404, in English measurement 494.704 acres.

'The county of Wicklow is divided into six baronies and half baronies.

'Arklow barony contains - -	41,721 *Acres.*
Newcastle, - - -	32,403
Half Rathdown, - -	18,532
Ballinacor, -	96,847
Two half baronies of Talbotstown,	88,683
Half barony Shillelagh, -	27,218

It contains 58 parishes, and 20 churches. Of these 49 parishes and 17 churches are in the archbishoprick of Dublin; 6 parishes and 3 churches in the diocess of Leighlin, and 3 parishes and 1 church in that of Ferns.

'A vast tract of mountains, composing almost the whole of the barony of Ballinacor, and a great part of the Upper half barony of Talbotstown, completely divides the eastern part of the county, extending along the sea coast from the western part adjoining the counties of Carlow, Dublin, and Kildare, so that the intercourse is almost wholly cut off between the inhabitants of these districts. To this may be added the remote situation of Shillelagh from either; forming natural divisions very distinct, strongly marked, and as different from each other in general circumstances, as if they were parts of separate and distinct counties.

'This circumstance of these rugged central mountains, with the fertile borders to the east, west, and south, has made the county of Wicklow be compared to a frize cloak with a laced border, not inaptly designating the manufacture, with which the mountainous part did abound, and pointing out the line of extending improvement into those now almost desolate wilds.'—

'The number of houses, in the return of the hearth money collectors, are stated in Dr. Beaufort's Memoir to his map of Ireland, to amount to 11,546. From some enumerations of the number to a house made by the Rev. Mr. Whitelaw, Mr. Henry Tighe, and others, I cannot take the average number at more than five and a half to a house. The inhabitants may therefore be computed at 58,000, a very small population for so large an extent, amounting only to 23.75 in a square mile, and 26.6 acres to each house on an average.

'Or about 1000 souls to each parish, averaging about 5,379 acres.

'But it is to be taken into consideration, that almost the whole of Ballinacor, at least five-sixths of it, is uninhabited, and a very large tract in the barony of Talbotstown, which together cannot be estimated at less than one-third of the extent of the whole county. This being taken from the whole number of acres and the remainder taken at 200,000 will give 17.33 to a house, or about 3.13 acres to an individual, which is by no means so despicable a population as would appear from Dr. Beaufort's statement, considering that it is entirely an agricultural population; there being no large towns or villages in the county.

'The agricultural population, on an average, of all the cultivated land in England and Wales, is about one inhabitant to little more than thirteen acres, which would in the same proportion allow eight acres to be a similar proportion for the cultivated lands in Ireland.'—

'Wicklow, the county town, does not contain above 1,250 souls.'

When the reader reflects on the facts here stated, he will be induced to think that sufficient provision has not been made for the religious education of the people. Only 20 churches for a population of 58,000, or 2,900 to a church!! The bodies of the lower orders seem also to be as little regarded as their minds. Their hovels are extremely poor and miserable, as the subsequent account will prove:

'To estimate the general cost of the mud or sods formed to prop up a roof of miserable thatch, that hardly defends them from the falling rain, and often permeable by every breeze, is only difficult from the smallness of the expence it must occasion. A farmer shewed me several new cottages he was erecting for his labourers, in a stile of superior splendour to most I had seen, and where the little wood made use of was necessary to be purchased. These he told me would cost three pounds each habitation. So that thirty or at most forty shillings would be a sufficient estimate for the general run of the cabbins for the labouring cottier. Yet for such hovels with a patch land of a rood in extent, two guineas is the common charge to the occupant.'

We are glad to learn, however, that this wretched state of the poor is undergoing considerable amelioration; of which the Earl of Meath and others are setting the noblest examples by the erection of comfortable cottages.—Little attention, till of late, appears to have been paid to the education of the poor by forming schools and charitable institutions.—The circulation is wholly paper, excepting small change in very bad silver, which is a distressing circumstance to the poor, and a great obstacle to the commerce of the country.—Though this county, by its excellent falls of water, is singularly calculated for every species of manufacturing machinery, Mr. F. particulary mentions only one mill.'

We deem it highly favourable to the introduction of English speculation and exertion in this part of Ireland, that the natives, even of the most remote vales in the midst of the mountains, do not speak the Irish language, but that English universally prevails.

Mr. Fraser notices the circumstance of native gold in pieces of various sizes having been found in this country; and he considers this event, together with the money expended by government in the subsequent search, as having given spirit to husbandry and extended the limits of cultivation.—As some of our readers may be fond of a golden tale, we shall here transcribe one for their gratification:

‘ It is in this vicinity, (Ballymurtagh) that the extraordinary circumstance has occured of native gold being found, and which has excited much curiosity and attention. Mr. Graham of Ballycooge, who lives near the spot, on which the gold was discovered, informed me that about 35 years ago, a small piece of gold was found in the stream, about the size of the head of a brass nail. This set many people on the search to try, if any more could be found, and he related to me an entertaining account of a schoolmaster in the neighbourhood, who was so possessed with the idea of gold to be found there in great quantities, that he used to go out in the night in search of it, when the schoolboys played a variety of tricks to the poor man; an account of which formed the foundation of Mr. O'Keeffe's little piece, called the Wicklow gold mines. Mr. Graham however assured me he did not believe, that there was any of it to any considerable amount found from that period until the end of August 1796, when a man crossing the brook found a piece of gold about half an ounce weight in the stream. This was about the 24th of August, and immediately the country people began to make workings in search of the gold, which was continued until the fifteenth of October; when possession was taken of the ground by a party of the Kildare militia, by an order from Government, on which the great concourse of people, who were busily engaged in endeavouring to obtain a share of the treasure, immediately desisted from their labour, and peaceably retired to their homes. Mr. Graham, who was present all the time, and purchased a considerable quantity of gold to the amount of above £.700, from the country people, told me, that according to the best calculation there was upwards of £.10,000 Irish paid to the country people for the gold found and sold on the spot, the average price paid for which was £.3 15*s.* an ounce, which makes it that 2,666 ounces were found in that short space of time.’

Ireland is known to possess eminent advantages of soil and climate; and the laudable object of this reporter, in every part of his work, is to point out the methods to be pursued in order to convert these advantages into general national blessings.

t extenuate the errors of the country, because he

cessary to understand the nature and

magnitude

gnitude of every evil, before attempts can be wisely made apply an adequate remedy: but, though he sometimes de- :rs humiliating truths, he blends consolation with them.

> In Ireland, (he observes,) the want of the diffusion of capital has asioned the very first improvements in the culture of her soil, to aain in a state of weakness and infancy. The want of inclosing, lding, draining, is evident to the most superficial observer. And, le these are wanting, it is in vain to expect the same uniform ap- rance of improved cultivation, which is beheld with so much de- it, in some of the most advanced districts, in agricultural improve- nt, in other parts of the united kingdom.
>
> For these last twenty years, capital in Ireland has been gradually, of late years rapidly accumulating, amongst the agricultural part he community. A great extension of cultivation has, in conse- nce, taken place. The high price of every kind of produce has nulated industry, and, notwithstanding the distractions, which for se three last years have taken place, there never was a period when re assiduous exertion has appeared amongst all classes, particularly ongst the lower classes of farmers, in cultivating their lands. Ex- t a very few tracts near the mountains, this seems in the strongest ree evident, not only in the county of Wicklow, but in the neigh- uring county of Wexford; and I believe, it will be found, that in ost every place double, and I am told in some districts seven times re land is under grain this year than has even been known in the mory of man.'

Particular attention is bestowed on the pasturage of Ireland; ich, from its uncommon tendency to grass, has been cha- teristically called *the Green Island*. Mr. F. advises the Irish change their breed of cattle; and he instructs them in the glish mode of hay-making. Under the head of *Dairies and ir produce*, he relates the singular practise of the Irish; and contradicts, on the evidence of the farmers themselves, a ange account circulated by Mr. Young, that they gave claret the ewes in order to forward their tupping:

> There are no dairies of any consequence in this county. The k in the northern part of the county is chiefly applied to the ling of lambs for the Dublin market. This is done not by the bs sucking the cows, as is said to be the practice in some parts England, but by women squirting the milk into the lambs' mouths. ey generally in this way give them from half a pint to a pint three es a day. This mode of management is very distressing to the poor ldren, whose parents prefer the advantage of rearing a few early bs with the milk of their cow, to affording it for the nourishment heir infants. The poor people in this part of the county are not y guilty of this injustice frequently to their own children, but also he public children, which they receive from the Foundling-house Dublin, and by the price they receive with whom, they chiefly pay ir rents. It ought, therefore, to be a point made, that no child uld be given to any woman, who suckles house-lambs or kids.

'With some of the more considerable farmers this business is very much attended to, but on account of the fatigue and expence attending it on a very large scale, it does not seem so much pursued by opulent farmers as I am told it was some time ago; and on conversing with some of the most extensive in this line, and who have sent the earliest lambs to Dublin market for some years past, I scarcely think that it pays for the hay they are obliged to give the cows, with the extra better keep for the ewes. The price however is very considerable, being from a guinea and a half to five guineas. As therefore it is a point of industry, that might be of some consequence under proper management, it may be of use to the farmers to be acquainted with the mode, in which they rear their house lambs for the supply of the London market.'

To this statement, the English mode of suckling house-lamb is benevolently subjoined.

Mr. Fraser concludes with alluding to the haste in which his report was framed, and with hoping that it will be received with candour by the public. The latter part is certainly much better written than the former; and it may hence be presumed that, had the author actually practised the *multum scribendum*, many of the errors which we noticed in the first part would not have appeared.

ART. V. *Mr.* Acerbi's *Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland.*

[*Article concluded from* p. 239.]

On the 16th of March 1799, at an early hour, Mr. Acerbi and his fellow-travellers, wrapped in bears' skins, with fur caps and gloves lined with wool, departed from Stockholm in sledges, intending to penetrate into Finland. The sky was dark and cloudy, and every scene through which they passed wore a gloomy aspect. Haga was no longer a delicious paradise, but its shady retreats appeared naked and mournful. The face of the country was uneven, though it could not be denominated hilly; and in many places, ramparts of snow, to the height of five or six feet, bordered each side of the road. In the northern states, the road is generally formed in the beginning of winter by means of a sort of plough, consisting of two deep pieces of wood joined at an acute angle, and drawn along by horses, to shove aside the new-fallen snow.—The only occurrence, which relieved the uniformity of the journey, was the frequent appearance of the arctic fox; which here seems to have lost much of the shyness and cunning that belong to the species. It stood or walked by the side of the road, and would even approach near to the sledges. If a person

son whistled when it was running away, it would stop short and turn round for a few seconds, and look him directly in the face.

After a fatiguing day's journey of sixty-nine miles, the party reached Grislehamn, a small place at which travellers usually halt; and which consists of a post house built of brick, surrounded by a number of wooden cabins occupied by peasants. It is a convenient station for the passage of the gulf of Bothnia into Finland, since Nature has there formed a safe and excellent harbour. Two tongues of land stretching out into the sea protect it from easterly and westerly winds; and a small island, situated near the middle, breaks the force of the waves which are swept from the north along the course of that dangerous gulf. On one of these promontories, at a commanding height, stands a telegraph, constructed according to a plan of M. Edelcrantz; which our traveller inadvertently states to have been erected by order of Gustavus III. during the Russian war. Had such been the case, it must have preceded the invention of that machine in France: but this is a mistake; it was planned very soon after that useful discovery, and while very imperfect ideas had gone abroad. It is quite different from the French method, and appears to be the simplest and most complete yet devised. M. Edelcrantz has written a pamphlet on the subject, which has been lately translated into French. and which is replete with ingenious contrivances. He has founded his principle on a happy application of the binary arithmetic of Leibnitz. The mechanism of the telegraph is admirable for its facility and precision; any person may learn to perform exactly all its manoeuvres in a few minutes; and yet, by very slight changes, the signals are susceptible of a most astonishing number of combinations.— The telegraph at Grislehamn corresponds with another erected on the shore of Finland; a direct distance of thirty or forty miles, the greatest yet attempted with those machines; and, by a chain of intermediate stations, the communication is extended from Stockholm to the frontiers of Russia. Dispatches are thus transmitted when the state of the weather, or the weakness of the ice, renders the passage of the gulf dangerous.

Our readers will be interested in Mr. Acerbi's description of his perilous journey across the ice:

> ' The sea, at first smooth and even, became more and more rugged and unequal. It assumed, as we proceeded, an undulating appearance, resembling the waves by which it had been agitated. At length we met with masses of ice heaped one upon the other, and some of them seeming as if they were suspended in the air, while others were raised in the form of pyramids. On the whole they ex-

hibited a picture of the wildest and most savage confusion, that surprized the eye by the novelty of its appearance. It was an immense chaos of icy ruins, presented to view under every possible form, and embellished by superb stalactites of a blue green colour.

'Amidst this chaos, it was not without difficulty and trouble that our horses and sledges were able to find and pursue their way. It was necessary to make frequent windings, and sometimes to return in a contrary direction, following that of a frozen wave, in order to avoid a collection of icy mountains that lay before us. In spite of all our expedients for discovering the evenest paths, our sledges were every moment overturned to the right or the left; and frequently the legs of one or other of the company, raised perpendicularly in the air, served as a signal for the whole caravan to halt. The inconvenience and the danger of our journey were still farther encreased by the following circumstance. Our horses were made wild and furious, both by the sight and the smell of our great pelices, manufactured of the skins of Russian wolves or bears. When any of the sledges was overturned, the horses belonging to it, or to that next to it, frighted at the sight of what they supposed to be a wolf or bear rolling on the ice, would set off at full gallop, to the great terror of both passenger and driver. The peasant, apprehensive of losing his horse in the midst of this desert, kept firm hold of the bridle, and suffered the horse to drag his body through masses of ice, of which some sharp points threatened to cut him in pieces. The animal, at last wearied out by the constancy of the man, and disheartened by the obstacles continually opposed to his flight, would stop; then we were enabled to get again into our sledges, but not till the driver had blind-folded the animal's eyes: but one time, one of the wildest and most spirited of all the horses in our train, having taken fright, completely made his escape. The peasant who conducted him, unable any longer to endure the fatigue and pain of being dragged through the ice, let go his hold of the bridle. The horse relieved from this weight, and feeling himself at perfect liberty, redoubled his speed, and surmounted every impediment. The sledge, which he made to dance in the air, by alarming his fears, added new wings to his flight. When he had fled to a considerable distance from us, he appeared from time to time as a dark spot which continued to diminish in the air, and at last totally vanished from our sight. Then it was that we recognized the prudence of having in our party some spare horses, and we were fully sensible of the danger that must attend a journey across the gulf of Bothnia withont such a precaution. The peasant, who was the owner of the fugitive, taking one of the sledges, went in search of him, trying to find him again by following the traces of his flight. As for ourselves, we made the best of our way to the isles of Aland, keeping as nearly as we could in the middle of the same plain, still being repeatedly overturned, and always in danger of losing one or other of our horses; which would have occasioned a very serious embarrassment. During the whole of this journey we did not meet with, on the ice, so much as one man, beast, bird, or any living creature. Those vast solitudes present a desert abandoned as it were by nature. The dead silence that reigns nterrupted only by the whistling of the winds against the premi- t points of ice, and sometimes by the loud crackings occasioned their being irresistibly torn from this frozen expanse; pieces thus ibly broken off are frequently blown to a considerable distance. ough the rents produced by these ruptures, you may see below watery abyss; and it is sometimes necessary to lay planks across n, by way of bridges, for the sledges to pass over.'—

After considerable fatigue, and many adventures, having refreshed horses about half way on the high sea, we at length touched at small island of Signilskar. This island presents to the view nei- wood nor lawn, and is inhabited only by some peasants, and the er of the telegraph which is stationed here for keeping up a cor- ondence with that of Grislehamn. It is one of those little islands ered in this part of the gulf, which collectively bear the name of d. The distance from Grislehamn to Signilskar, in a strait is five Swedish miles, which are nearly equal to thirty-five Eng- but the turnings we were obliged to make, in order to find out most practicable places, could not be less than ten English miles . All this while we were kept in anxious suspence concerning ate of our fugitive horse, and entertained the most uneasy appre- ions that he was either lost in the immensity of the icy desert, or d perhaps in the watery abyss. We were preparing to continue journey through the isles on the ice, and had already put new s to our sledge, when we spied, with inexpressible pleasure, the ledges returning with the fugitive. The animal was in the most rable condition imaginable: his body was covered all over with t and foam, and was enveloped in a cloud of smoke. Still we ot dare to come near him; the excessive fatigue of his violent e had not abated his ferocity; he was as much alarmed at the of our pelices as before; he snorted, bounded, and beat the and ice with his feet; nor could the utmost exertions of the nts to hold him fast have prevented him from once more mak- is escape, if we had not retired to some distance, and removed ight and the scent of our pelices. From Signilskar we pursued ourney through the whole of the isles of Aland. In different of Aland you meet with post-houses, that is to say with places e you may get horses. You travel partly by land and partly the ice of the sea. The distance between some of these islands nts to no less than eight or ten miles. On the sea, the natives used the precaution of fixing branches of trees, or putting small along the whole route, for the guidance of travellers in the -time, or directing them how to find out the right way after falls ow.'

e isle of Aland, with its dependencies, has above eleven and inhabitants. They live partly by fishing and partly llage; are well clothed, substantially fed, and commodi- lodged; and are, on the whole, a lively courteous people, great regularity of manners.

Åbo, the capital of Finland, Mr. Acerbi staid a few This small town stands on the side of the muddy river

Aurajocki, and is encircled by hills which form a promontory. Some of the principal buildings are of stone, but the rest of the houses are of wood; and it contains nearly ten thousand inhabitants. The university has been already noticed. The town has some foreign trade and various manufactures; and, which may seem surprising in such a northern climate, large quantities of tobacco are grown in the neighbourhood of Åbo. —Here our travellers purchased small peasant's sledges, as being the best suited for the country. The power of the sun now began to be felt. In many places, the snow was melted away in the middle of the road, and they were obliged continually to get out of the sledge and walk. Sometimes, by the sudden change of ground, they were tossed out of the vehicle; but, this being low, the fall was attended with no sort of danger. The appearance of the country was flat and dull.—At midnight, they reached Yervenkyle, a retired mansion belonging to the University, and let to an obliging peasant; who received them with such hospitality, that they were tempted to make a halt of three days, in order to recruit from their fatigues. In the vicinity of the hamlet, the river Kyro, issuing from a lake of the same name, forms a succession of bold cataracts:

> 'The fall presented us with one of those appearances which we desired much to see, as being peculiar to the regions of the North, and which are never to be met with in Italy. The water, throwing itself amidst enormous masses of ice which here and there have the aspect of gloomy vaults, fringed with curious crystallizations, and the cold being of such rigour as almost to freeze the agitated waves and vapours in the air, had formed gradually two bridges of ice across the cascade of such solidity and strength, that men passed over them in perfect security. The waves raging and foaming below with a vast noise, were in a state of such violent motion as to spout water now and then on the top of the bridge; a circumstance which rendered its surface so exceedingly slippery, that the peasants were obliged to pass it creeping on their hands and knees.'

Leaving Yervenkyle, Mr. Acerbi entered a vast forest, eighty miles in extent. Here, all was silence, solitude, and gloom; and, though the air felt milder than in the open plain, the rays of the sun were excluded by the spreading branches of the pines. The tiresome uniformity of the scenery, however, was at times interrupted by the traces of devastation by fire or hurricanes; and the wreck of one of those conflagrations was seen, covering a space of six or seven miles. Some of the trees were scorched, others had fallen down and were half burnt, while a young groupe was springing up from their ashes. Such accidents are not unfrequent in wooded countries during very dry seasons: for, when fire once chances to catch the undergrowth, it runs along with irresistible fury. The havock committed by the irruption of tempests is still more impressive; and the largest trees are torn from their roots by the violence of the blast, and strewed about on the ground.—After having traversed this immense forest, the party was obliged to cross a river; which was extremely dangerous, the stream being open on each side, and the ice thin and friable in the middle; and had they not obtained the assistance of two peasants, who undertook to act as guides, they must have inevitably perished in the attempt. Having conducted them in safety to the shore, these generous fellows refused to accept any reward for their services.

As they advanced northwards, our travellers found the ice more solid; and now they had to experience a more striking transition. The surface was at first covered with a dirty coat of snow; at last they came to a sheet of ice, clear and smooth as glass. They were affected with momentary terror and surprize: but the horses, borne forwards by their acquired impetus, and extending their joints, slid rapidly across the river. Where the water was shallow, Mr. Acerbi could distinguish the pebbles, or observe the fishes scudding at the bottom. When the depth was great, he saw only an obscure greenish colour.

The small town of Wasa, situated in the latitude of 63°, is the first that occurs on entering Ostrobothnia. It consists of low houses, built entirely of wood, but the streets are laid out with great regularity. Its population amounts only to two thousand, yet it is in a thriving condition, and has a considerable export trade.—Here Mr. Acerbi and his party were entertained with magnificent hospitality by the president and the governor. The wife of the former he found to be a lady of amiable and polished manners, perfectly acquainted with the French and Italian languages.

From Wasa to Uleåborg, the distance is 190 miles: but the season being now far advanced, the ice was in many parts broken or melted, which made the journey very fatiguing. The travellers pursued their course along the coast, crossing rivers, woods, and branches of the sea. The whole country was a dead flat, the shores naked and rocky. In their route lay Gamla Carleby, or old Charles-town, which contains about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly built, and has some trade: but its harbour, on account of a sand-bank, is inaccessible to ships which draw much water.

‘ From Gamla Carleby we continued our journey on the ice, and experienced a new sensation peculiar to this mode of travelling. We have before observed, that the frost is here so intense, as to arrest he sea in its waving motion. The sun becoming more powerful with the advancement of the season, melted considerably the ice on the surface. The water thus produced during the day collected in the cavities or furrows, and formed little pools or rivulets, which we were under the necessity of traversing in our sledges; and as they were always a considerable depth in the middle, we saw ourselves descending we knew not where, and actually thought we should sink to the bottom of the ocean. The intrepidity, or rather indifference, with which the Finlander made his way through those pools, encouraged us a little; but the recollection that we were upon the sea, and a consciousness that the water was entering our sledge, excited at first frightful apprehensions, and a continued disagreeable feeling.

'In nights of severe and intense cold, such as frequently occur at that time of the year, a crust of ice is formed over those pools, insomuch, that the water becomes inclosed between two plates of ice: in this case the sledge, as it passes over the upper crust, which is generally of but a brittle texture, breaks it, and suddenly falls into the water, which bubbles up all about the sledge, nor does it stop till it gets to the second layer of ice. This unexpected fall produces a horrible sensation; and though there are rarely more than two feet of distance from one stratum of ice to the other, yet the sight of the water, the plunging of the horse, &c. are exceedingly alarming.'

In this singular journey, the party met with fishermen employing hook and bait. These hardy people, mounted on long wooden skates, and pushing themselves forwards with poles, passed along the ice with astonishing velocity. At the places which they judged proper, they made a hole with a sort of chizel, and let down the hook perhaps thirty feet into the sea. When the cold was intense, they kept stirring the water at the mouth of the hole, to prevent it from freezing; and they sheltered themselves from the piercing wind by means of a small triangular sail.

On the 7th of April, Mr. Acerbi and his fellow-travellers arrived at Uleåborg. It was their intention to remain here only five days, but they found the place so attractive, and they formed such agreeable acquaintance, that they changed their plan, and made a stay of two months: during which residence, they had opportunities of procuring ample information respecting Finland.—Uleåborg, lying under the parallel of 65°, was founded in the year 1605, and contains nearly four thousand inhabitants. It has some trade, but its harbour is very bad, being choaked up with gravel, which increases every year. The river Uleå, on whose banks the town stands, is extremely rapid and dangerous; and no ships are allowed to descend it without being conducted by registered pilots. The soil of the adjacent country is in general sandy; and in some places there is found a rich ochre, from which the peasants extract iron. The ground is for the most part low, and overspred with brush-wood and morasses. Mr. Julin, apothecary at Uleåborg, furnished some curious observations with regard to the climate. The winter lasts full seven months, the summer only three; and the spring and autumn are consequently of very short duration, scarcely a month each. About the 25th of April, the wild geese and birds of the lakes arrive; by the 20th of May the rivers are open; with the 10th of August the night frosts commence; harvest is begun about the 20th of that month, and the winter rye sown. Owing to the length of the summer-days, vegetation is very rapid; and there are instances of corn being sown and reaped within the space of six weeks. Our surprize, however, will be somewhat diminished, when we reflect that this was only rye, which has a quick growth in every country.—The greatest cold observed for twenty-three years at Uleåborg was in 1799; when the thermometer of Celsius stood at 40° below zero, corresponding to 40° below the beginning of Fahrenheit's scale, and consequently one degree below the point at which mercury freezes. The greatest heat occurred in the preceding year; it was 31° of Celsius, or 88° by Fahrenheit.

One of the most polite and agreeable men at Uleåborg was Baron Silfverhielm; who, besides possessing a taste for experimental philosophy, had seen much of the world. The Baron is not ashamed to profess himself an adept in animal magnetism, and Mr. Acerbi relates some exhibitions of that delusive art which seem to have left a deep impression. We will not abuse the credulity of our readers by repeating the facts, since all cool thinking persons are convinced that the whole is effected by the power of imagination.

Mr. Acerbi's hostess was most assiduous in supplying a plentiful and even luxurious table. Neither trouble nor cost was spared; and the richest and most delicate viands were procured. Yet the charge was extremely small; the whole expence for himself, his companion, and a servant, for lodging, with breakfast, dinner, tea, coffee, and supper included, did not amount to two guineas *per* week. Every thing, indeed, concurred to render their stay at Uleåborg delightful. It was the opening of summer, and all nature teemed with life and motion.—After supper, they generally sallied out at ten o'clock, and spent several hours in shooting among the woods and fens; the glimmering light and stillness of the night being favourable to the sport.

Mr. Acerbi fortunately met with two musical gentlemen at Uleåborg; and with the assistance of Colonel Skiöldebrand, they were able to perform a *quartetto*. In that remote place, this concert was regarded as a phænomenon, and the interest and sensibility which the inhabitants discovered will appear from the following extract:

'Uleåborg, during the time of our stay, had a concert every evening, open to every one that chose to attend. Our audience increased in number to such a degree, that we were obliged to hire an apartment larger than any room in our house; and our quartetto was constantly honoured by a numerous circle of ladies, and almost all the gentlemen of the town. It is impossible for me to convey an adequate idea of the impression our music made upon our hearers. In order to make a trial of their sensibility, and the effect of music on their passions, we composed on purpose a few pieces of an easy harmony, the movement of whose modulations was natural and intelligible even to persons unaccustomed to the artificial refinements of music. We studied to alternate the movements of grand effect, passing from the highest *forte* to the lowest *piano*, and *vice versa*, by transitions of surprise. We presently saw the tears trickle from the eyes of our feeling audience. As we realized the fabulous times of Greece, our spectators presented a most interesting picture, worthy of the pencil of the most celebrated painter. The eyes of all our hearers were turned upon us; some seemed to follow with every feature of the face the movements of the melody: we could read in the physiognomy of the Finlanders the character of the music we had played; every look became serious at forced and strong modulations, while soft and melodious passages seemed to disperse the cloud, and their countenances resumed their tranquillity. It was curious to observe the different effects produced by the music on persons of different constitutions. One, for example, remained during the whole of a *sonata* fixed and stedfast, his mouth open, his eyes staring, without moving his eye-lids, and apparently struck with a stupid astonishment: another, on the contrary, seemed to follow every step of the melody with his whole body, and appeared to suffer a sort of musical convulsion: but the moment we began to play their *runa* [*], every eye was drowned in tears, and the emotion was general.'

The winter is a very busy season with the Finlander. He thrashes out his corn, collects wood, builds boats, makes nets, and employs himself in fishing, or in hunting squirrels, bears, and seals. The cross-bow was till lately in general use. One mode of fishing is curious: when a fish is observed in shallow water, after the frost has set in, the fisherman strikes a violent blow with a wooden mallet so as to break the ice; the animal, thus stunned, rises in a few seconds to the surface, and is caught.

Mr. Acerbi gives two entertaining chapters on the customs of the Finlanders. Their modes of courtship and their marriage

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'[*] The runa is a piece of the most ancient melody of Finland, which is still retained by this people, and suited to their national instrument called the *harpu*, probably the original of our *harp*, or a copy of the ancient *cithara* of the Greeks.'

ceremonies evince great simplicity of manners. The use pour-baths is universal among the people; and both sexes promiscuously, without feeling the smallest impropriety. heat may seem intolerable, amounting to 70° or 75° of us, or from 158° to 167° of Fahrenheit's scale. In the bath, rub themselves vigorously, and lash every part of the body twigs of birch; and often, when they come out, they will in the cold air, or roll themselves in the snow. Yet all s attended with neither danger nor inconvenience!

e Finns are attached to poetry; and they have a sort of *visatori*, who recite verses in public. These verses are d *runic*, and consist of eight trochees with alliterative es. Ample specimens are here given: but one of the s the complaint of a country girl, who could neither read rite, on the absence of her lover.—The lullaby song of nd is such a specimen of genuine tenderness, that we can- sist the pleasure of transcribing it:

> leep on, sleep on, sweet bird of the meadow; Take thy rest, edbreast, take thy rest; God shall awake thee in his own good He has made thee a little bough to repose thee on; A bough ed with the leaves of the birch-tree; Sleep stands at the door, ys; The son of sleep stands at the door and says;. Is there little child here; Lying asleep in the cradle; A little child up in swaddling cloths; A child reposing under a coverlet of '—.

ng still deeply tinctured with superstition, the Finns have runic verses to which they ascribe healing powers; and charms, styled *sanat*, are much employed by itinerant em- and ignorant old women, though the clergy have laud- xerted themselves to discourage this practice.

season being now very far advanced, the author's ori- plan of penetrating through Lapland to the North Cape not be longer deferred. The information procured at org, indeed, respecting the intended journey, was ex- y discouraging. The Missionaries who had visited Lap- ad travelled only during the winter season, and were ded that the roads must be absolutely impassible in er; and the good people of Uleåborg regarded the whole t as chimerical. It was resolved, however, to make the ot; and the party was even augmented by the accession of in already mentioned, and of M. Castrein, minister at a botanist and a well-informed man. They purchased sian tent, and laid in a stock of provisions for twenty Thus prepared, they embarked on the 8th of June at lock at night, while the sun was glimmering above the n. They were attended to the side of the river by all the ladies and gentlemen of their acquaintance; and the last farewell was tender and affecting. After having landed on the opposite shore, they proceeded through a country in no respect interesting, covered with shrubs and brushwood. In the course of their journey, they found a number of peasants dancing in a hut: but it was the most rustic and stupid exhibition imaginable. Near Kemi, the face of the country became more varied, and swelled into little hills. At this place, M. Castrein re-discovered the *Cypridium bulbosum* first seen by Rudbeck in 1685, and which is certainly one of the rarest and most beautiful productions of the North. It conceals itself among the underwood that surrounds the church *.—The distance now was not great to Torneå, where they met with an excellent inn. This capital of Finnish Lapland, which was founded by the orders of Charles IX. in 1602, is thus described by the present author:

'The town of Torneå contains a population of scarcely six hundred souls. The houses are almost entirely of a single story, though high enough to exclude the moisture of the snow in winter. The merchants of Torneå inhabit the southern part of the town, which they have been at pains to embellish, and render as agreeable as possible: they have made a public walk, laid out gardens, planted some trees, and have studied by their industry to compensate for the defects of nature. The obscure days of winter are counterbalanced by the almost continual presence of the sun in summer, and their 48 degrees of cold, to which the mercury falls in one season, are exchanged for 27 of heat, to which it rises in the other; for these are the two extremes of the thermometer that have been observed in Torneå.

'The town is almost entirely encircled by the river Torneå, which spreads itself here in a majestic stream. The opposite banks present a number of cottages and farm houses, which the river, when quiet and undisturbed, reflects from its pellucid waters. Northward you see a small elevation, on the top of which stand several windmills, and lower down to the north-east are some meadow grounds and cultivated fields. It is commonly from one of those wind-mills that travellers view the sun at midnight in the month of June; but the place most particularly calculated for enjoying this spectacle, is the church of Lower Torneå, situated on the isle of Biörkön, about a mile from the town. Besides seeing the sun entirely above the horizon at this point of view, the eye commands the environs of Torneå, the two mountains Bakamo and Korpekila, and the town itself, which is built upon the little island, or rather peninsula, of Swensar. The houses, and the church with its steeple, being reflected from the smooth surface of the river, afford a very pleasing picture.'

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* This plant has been admirably figured by Dr. Smith.

At Torneå, the travellers were treated with great civility; and they prevailed on Dr. Deutsch, a skilful physician and naturalist of that place, to accompany them. In the route to Upper Torneå, the country has still the same appearance: but the road is good, and kept in excellent repair.—At Frankila, a little village consisting of a few wooden huts, the women and children had healthy pleasing looks, yet the bread which they ate consisted of two thirds straw, chopped small, and one third meal. At Upper Torneå, the whole company was lodged and hospitably entertained at the house of M. Swamberg, the principal clergyman of the district. His daughters were pretty, lively, and possessed some share of natural wit; and two days were spent very agreeably in this society.—After having made an excursion to Avisaxa, so well described by Maupertuis, the travellers resumed their journey; and they now took leave of the civilized world. They were to find no more roads, nor horses, nor accommodation for travellers; and it was henceforth necessary to proceed by water. The boatmen discovered uncommon skill in ascending against the stream, and in stemming the violence of the cataracts: in which dangerous exertions, their coolness or their insensibility was of the utmost service. Sometimes, to relieve their toil, they disembarked their passengers; who, following the banks of the river, clambered among the rocks and bushes: but travelling in this way proved extremely fatiguing, and they were also annoyed by a species of gnats. Their servants now began to murmur and complain: but, fortunately, on their arrival at Kingis, they were received with great civility by the inspector of the mines, who accommodated them with lodging, and supplied a most plentiful board.

On Sunday, this gentleman gave a grand entertainment, and assembled the peasants. One of their feats was the *bear's dance*, a most laborious and aukward kind of exercise. The company spent the day in high glee, and prolonged the merriment till the next morning: but a parting scene was then to take place. Colonel Skiöldebrand and his servant only determined to proceed with Mr. Acerbi; and the rest were induced by various reasons to return.

To Kollare, the distance was 22 miles; and during their passage, the travellers for the first time experienced a thunder-storm, so rare in the northern climates. This village is situated on a small island, inclosed by the river Muonio; and the landscape was pleasing, the banks being lined with birch and willow, which form a contrast with the dark uniformity of the pines. Here they found four of the most experienced boatmen that had presented themselves in the whole course of the expedition; and nothing could exceed the courage, steadiness, and address, which these Finlanders displayed. Our travellers styled one of them, by pre-eminence, *the Bonaparte of the Cataracts*.—The distance to Muonionisca was 66 miles; and two days and two nights were spent in effecting this passage, which cost incredible toil and fatigue. Near the termination of the voyage, they stopped at a small cottage, inhabited by a colony of Finlanders, consisting of two families. The surrounding scenery was beautiful: a number of small tufted islets appeared sprinkled in the river; and the opposite banks smiled with verdure. These emigrants possessed a tract of country six miles in extent, acquired by right of occupation; yet they seemed immersed in wretched poverty.—At *Muonionisca*, which signifies the beginning of the *Muonio*, the travellers were glad to recruit themselves by a short stay. This village consists of only about sixteen houses, including the church; and though the parish comprehends a tract of two hundred miles square, it contains no more than four hundred persons. It is a settlement of Finlanders, who live chiefly on fish which they catch in the river and the adjoining lakes, and on wild fowl which at certain seasons they kill in great quantities. They are extremely sober, and of a serious gloomy character. The passion of love they never feel with any fervour, and the union of the sexes is with them a mere appetite. It is a custom pretty general among them for the youth of both sexes to sleep together, without indulging in any improper familiarities; and marriage is viewed as an arrangement of convenience, and settled wholly by the parents. In consequence of this temperance, the people are healthy, and live to an advanced age. Their clergyman was remarkably clownish, and his appearance bespoke great indigence: but his scanty knowlege of letters was compensated by strong natural sense. Mr. Acerbi found him also very obliging and communicative; and he accompanied the travellers in an excursion to the neighbouring heights. They proceeded by water, following a branch of the river, the banks of which were fringed with osiers. The eye was regaled by the sight of frequent small lakes; but, on account of swamps, it was impossible to reach the tops of the hills. The snow, however, was almost entirely melted away.—In the course of the journey, they were annoyed by gnats and oppressed by heat: which circumstances induced them in future to travel during the night. They therefore re-commenced their progress on the 1st of July at ten o'clock in the evening. At midnight, the thermomer stood at 19 degrees of Celsius, or 68 of Fahrenheit, and at noon it rose to 29 of Celsius or 84 of Fahrenheit. They ascended the little river Pallojoki, with infinite fatigue, owing to the shallowness and continual windings of the stream; and at Pallajoveniö they found a small settlement of Finlanders, who seemed very comfortably lodged. They now soon entered Lapland. The face of the country became totally changed: no trees were seen, except a few dwarf birches, and the whole flat expanse was covered by the famous moss, or lichen, on which the rein-deer feeds. This vegetable is of a pale yellow colour, but turns white when dry. From the uncommon regularity of its shape, it gives to the ground the semblance of an embroidered carpet, soft to the feet; and it makes a pleasant couch.

The travellers next proceeded to the lake of Pallajervi, and, landing on a small island, pitched their tent. Here they made a halt, and dispatched a messenger to discover some mountain Laplanders who might serve as guides for the rest of the journey. This interval was spent very agreeably. The surrounding scenery was altogether new; they found plenty of game among the bushes, and the lakes supplied the finest fish for their table.—In three days, the messenger returned, having succeeded in his embassy: on which intelligence they immediately set forwards, and joined a party of Laplanders, consisting of six men and a girl, who were seated under a birch tree, roasting dried fish. Their appearance was filthy and disgusting: being of short stature, and of dark complexions, with sharp chins and high cheek bones;—evidently of a Tartar descent. The faithful and affectionate Finlanders were now discharged, and the company proceeded on foot, the baggage being carried by their new attendants.

'The degree of heat was twenty-nine in the shade, and forty-five in the sun *. The ground burned our feet; and the few shrubs we met with in our way afforded us little or no shelter. We were almost suffocated with heat; and to add to our sufferings, we were under the necessity of wearing a dress of thick woollen cloth, as a security from the insects, and to cover our faces with a veil, which in a great measure prevented our drawing breath. This extraordinary degree of heat soon operated most powerfully upon our Laplanders, who had already swallowed three glasses of brandy each. They laid themselves down to rest at every short distance, and were calling out every moment for more brandy. We soon discovered that we had no longer to do with Finlanders, who are a sober, robust, active, and hardy race of people. We had now to deal with a set of wretches who cared only for fermented liquors, and were unwilling to work. In this manner we went on for six miles from the beginning of our journey, in which distance they stopped to take rest about fifty times, and as many times each of them asked for brandy. If we had not come to the resolution to deny them when they asked, we should

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* 84° and 113° of Fahrenheit. Rev.

have made no progress that day. They were dying with thirst, and the first spring they came to they dipped their heads in, like so many pigs, and drank full as large draughts. We were at very considerable trouble throughout the whole of this journey, both in making our Laplanders go on and in keeping them from straggling. When one tumbled down, the whole line of march was stopped; when the word *halt* was given, all the caravan threw itself on the ground; and it was not without much entreaty that we could get the individuals of it to raise themselves again on their legs. We were nearly six hours in going six miles.'

Mr. Acerbi and his friends were still dreadfully annoyed by clouds of musquitoes, and were obliged to use every expedient to chase away these tormenting insects.—Having now frequent opportunities of observing the temper of the Laplanders, they found that indolence and apathy form their prominent features: that they eat, sleep, and smoke, as mere appetite directs: that they never thwart, far less correct, their children; and that they seem to be wholly devoid of religious sentiments.—At last, the company reached Kautokeino, having proceeded part of the way in shattered boats, and having had occasion throughout for their whole stock of patience, in order to bear with the lazy, dirty, and stupid Laplanders. This village is subject to the crown of Denmark, and contains four families, with a church, a priest, and a schoolmaster. The parish is 200 miles in length and 100 in breadth: but this vast tract is peopled by only 90 families, of whom merely 12 have fixed habitations; the rest are wandering Laplanders, who in summer resort to the coasts for the sake of fishing, but, during the other seasons, continually rove with their herds of rein-deer from place to place.

The distance from Kautokeino to Alten Gaard was above 120 miles, most of which the party performed by descending the riven Alten, one of the most beautiful that they had yet seen. Its channel was bordered with bushes, or confined by rocks. On its banks grew Angelica, which, on account of its antiscorbutic qualities, is a plant highly prized in these countries.—The weather was as hot as in Italy, and the travellers were pursued by clouds of musquitoes: but they discovered frequent springs, not exceeding 40° of temperature by Fahrenheit, which cold beverage proved extremely refreshing. Quitting the course of the river, they traversed on foot a high tract of country, which Mr. Acerbi terms mountainous, but which, from several circumstances, appears not to merit that appellation. The clouds, however, seemed to bend down towards the ground, and large spaces were covered with perpetual snow. In descending from these heights, the Alps of Lapland, they felt transported by magic into another world; and the lanscape presented luxuriant vegetation, thick herbage, and large trees. They were now drawing near to the period of their journey, for the frozen ocean lay stretched out before them: but the formidable North Cape was still an hundred miles distant.

At Alten Gaard, the travellers were entertained with great hospitality and even magnificence in the house of a Danish merchant, by whose advice they now resolved to proceed along the coast in a boat. They landed, as curiosity prompted them, at different points, and visited the cabins of the maritime Laplanders; who live comparitively in ease and affluence. Each family has a tract extending a Norwegian mile, or nearly eight English miles, on every side: they have cows, which furnish them with excellent milk; and they have store of dried fish, rein-deer's tongues, and oat-meal. The mild genius of the Danish government is felt even in these remote regions.—Being detained by contrary winds, Mr. Acerbi and his companion made an excursion among the hills, where they fortunately descried the conical tent of a family of Nomade or wandering Laplanders. At the desire of the travellers, a herd of 300 rein-deers was collected together: but their appearance gave no pleasure, for the poor animals were in miserable condition, panting with excessive heat, and their skins pierced and lacerated by musquitoes and other flies.—A breeze having sprung up, they now returned to the boat, passed the whale sound, and went on shore to the house of a merchant, built on an island near Havesund; the most dismal habitation perhaps on the face of the earth, where nothing is seen but naked rocks.—Proceeding onwards, the Frozen Ocean opened to view, and at midnight they reached the extreme promontory of Europe. It is thus described, with feeling and eloquence:

> 'The North Cape is an enormous rock, which projecting far into the ocean, and being exposed to all the fury of the waves and the outrage of tempests, crumbles every year more and more into ruins. Here every thing is solitary, every thing is steril, every thing sad and despondent. The shadowy forest no longer adorns the brow of the mountain; the singing of the birds, which enlivened even the woods of Lapland, is no longer heard in this scene of desolation; the ruggedness of the dark gray rock is not covered by a single shrub; the only music is the hoarse murmuring of the waves, ever and anon renewing their assaults on the huge masses that oppose them. The northern sun, creeping at midnight at the distance of five diameters along the horizon, and the immeasurable ocean in apparent contact with the skies, form the grand outlines in the sublime picture presented to the astonished spectator. The incessant cares and pursuits of anxious mortals are recollected as a dream; the various forms and energies of animated nature are forgotten; the earth

contemplated only in its elements, and as constituting a part of the solar system.'

Near this forlorn headland, and on the brink of the shore, Mr. Acerbi found a beautiful natural cave, in which he rested some time highly delighted. Plants of angelica were growing round it, and a spring of cold fresh water trickled at his feet.

On his return, our traveller retraced nearly the same route, and he therefore contents himself with a succinct narrative. He touched at several places on the coast, and was treated with great kindness and respect by the Norwegian settlers. From Kautokeino, he made a long march across some hills to Enontekis; thence he proceeded to Muonionisca, to Kengis and Torneå, and, on the 11th of August, made a sort of triumphal entry into Uleåborg.

Here, then, the travels terminate: but a large and interesting portion of the second volume is filled with general remarks on the character and customs of the Laplanders, chiefly extracted from a late authentic book, written by Leems, a Danish missionary, who had passed ten years among those people. This curious work, which is scarcely known in England, was printed in 1767 at Copenhagen, by the command of Christian VII. We should transgress our limits, if we entered into the details.—Mr. Acerbi has also enumerated the quadrupeds, birds, and insects which inhabit or visit Finland and Lapland; and he gives a systematic list of the plants and minerals found in those countries. Of the birds, he particularly celebrates the *Motacilla Suecica*, or Swedish nightingale. It is termed by the Laplanders *saddan kiellinen*, which signifies a *hundred tongues*. It lodges among the bushes that grow by the sides of the rivers, and fills the air with the varied melody of its song. This charming warbler has also a beautiful plumage.—The catalogue of minerals is of little value, becuase it contains no local notices: but the specimens of Finland and Lapland music, which are subjoined, will be esteemed curious by the amateurs.—The diary of the author's journey throws light on the narrative itself, and may prove useful to future travellers.

In mentioning the village of Pello in Finmark, the author suspends his narrative to insert a lame translation of a long memoir, or rather introduction to a memoir, by M. Swamberg, Secretary to the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, lately sent by that learned body to retrace and examine the operations of the French Mathematicians, who in 1736 measured a degree of the meridian under the polar circle. The Swedish Astronomer has found, as has been repeatedly suspected, that the angles of the stations were not correctly taken: but a paper consisting merely of dry preliminary mathematical investigations seems aukwardly thrust into a book of travels.

An observing young man, who travels much, will gather a variety of specious knowlege: but it cannot be expected that he will acquire that correctness and depth of information which are the fruit of calm research and severe application. In perusing these volumes, we have had frequent cause to regret the author's imperfect acquaintance with physics and natural history: a deficiency which is the more remarkable, because on some occasions he rather seems to make a display of science. A latent suspicion of inaccuracy unfortunately diminishes, to a certain degree, our confidence in his descriptions and numerical statements; and there are some mistakes too palpable to be confounded with the errors of the press. Yet these volumes form, on the whole, a very interesting publication; and by expunging some passages, by softening and compressing others, and by carefully revising the whole, its value may be much enhanced in a second edition.—With respect to the appearance of the work, it deserves unalloyed praise. The paper, the printing, and the engravings, are suited to the luxury of modern typography; and the coloured plates of insects are particularly well finished.

To the second volume, is prefixed a large sheet map of Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, copied from Baron Hermelin's collection.

ART. VI. *Herman and Dorothea:* a Poem, from the German of Goethe. By Thomas Holcroft. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

WE have always been persuaded, in spite of many alarming appearances to the contrary, that the poetical taste of this nation was fundamentally different from that of our neighbours in Germany. The caprice of our national character, and the excess into which all fashions are apt to run, may have obtained a temporary popularity for some of the extraordinary productions of that country; and the native skill of our actors and translators may have contributed to reconcile us to these exotic novelties. There is also a mixture of good things in the productions of every land; and the passages which are only endured in England may be those which are most highly admired in Germany. We may occasionally fare well enough at a Bavarian dinner: but, unless we prefer sour krout to potatoes, and rhenish to port, we must not flatter ourselves that we have the taste of our entertainers; and a regale composed entirely of these national articles would be the only test of our conformity.

The reception of the publication before us will probably, in the same manner, afford the *experimentum crucis* with respect to the poetry which pleases both nations: since it is a performance purely and characteristically German, and cannot possibly be admired by those who have not a true German taste. It is proper, however, to observe that the Teutonic poetry has two characteristic qualities, and either astonishes by its boldness and sublimity, or engages by its familiarity and plainness. In the lofty way, it deals largely in suicides, adulteries, castles, and enchantments; in the other, it accomplishes its purposes by the assistance of hair dressing, post waggons, boiled mutton, and tobacco. Most of their great writers have blended these two modes together in their composition, and produced a most captivating medley of cookery and murder, apparitions and chambermaids: yet the departments are so essentially distinct, that we cannot help thinking that the effect of these pieces has been impaired by their injudicious combination. The present performance has the merit of steering quite clear of this error, and of preserving a perfect and entire unity in the style and manner of its composition. It is a genuine specimen of the *lowly* in character, action, and diction; and it cannot fail to delight all those who have surmounted the prejudice of supposing that the interest of a poetical fable depends, in any degree, on the dignity of the actors or the importance of the events.

It is true, no doubt, that persons of an humble condition have frequently been introduced into poetry before the qualifying statutes of our late German legislators: but the privilege was confined, in those days, to a very limited description of plebeians. Shepherds and cottage beauties, (who could afford to spend the whole day in singing and piping, carving sheephooks, and training honeysuckles round their casements,) were the only sort of persons that formerly divided our interest with heroes and chieftains, high-born damsels, and royal orphans: but now, all these antiquated distinctions are abolished; and, in Germany at least, the adventures of tradesmen, waiters, and postillions, are thought to be just as suitable subjects for epic and tragic poetry, as the fall of tyrants or the loves of princes.

In the poem before us, which is intended for a moral and pathetic composition, the characters consist of an innkeeper, his wife, and their son; the parson and the apothecary of the village; and a damsel who comes to be hired for a maid-servant. The place of incident is supplied in a great measure by the desultory and disjointed chat of these interesting personages, who carouse over a glass of old hock on all subjects, from haymaking to predestination; and the fable concerns the son's amour with a vagrant, whom he had been sent to relieve a parcel of old linen.—As we consider this performance *ique* in its own species of composition, and despair of ever ting with any thing parallel to it in the course of our future arches, we shall beg leave to lay before our readers a short ysis of the story, together with such extracts as may enable to judge for themselves respecting the execution. The inal, we are told, is composed in hexameter verses; in what ies of verse the translation is written, we confess, we have been able to determine. The diction, however, seems to ccommodated to the subject, throughout the whole poem; singular felicity and judgment.

he work opens with a dialogue between the old innkeeper his wife, sitting together on the bench at their door. The hbouring country had been invaded or threatened with sion by the French, and a band of fugitives had passed near is village. The hostess had sent her son *Herman* with the gon and some old clothes to relieve them; and the host s:

> 'It pleas'd me much to see him curb the young
> Fresh steeds; and guide the carriage, neat and new,
> With seats for four, beside the box on which
> He sat and drove, winding the streets at will.
>
> 'So discours'd the Host of the Golden Lion
> With his wife; sitting, garrulous and blithe,
> Under his door-porch, in the market-place;
> And thus the good and careful dame replied:
> Linen, however old, is still of use
> Not to be bought, nor lightly given away:
> Yet th' old went not alone; but shirts, and garments,
> Many, and good, some not half worn, I sent.'

his conversation continues till the people who had gone to look at the strangers begin to return:

> 'And now, hurrying homeward, men and their wives
> Throng'd thro' the market. Swiftly driving, with
> His daughters, went the richest trader in
> The town; returning to his house, rebuilt,
> In his new landau.'

The old couple sit looking at the croud, till

> 'See, said the Hostess, where the Pastor comes;
> And with him, arm in arm, th' Apothecary:
> They'll tell us all that pass'd; the when, the where.'

The two neighbours then sit down, and begin to moralize war, charity, and misfortunes, till the host observes that wasps and flies are troublesome there, and that it would be better to adjourn to the parlour, and take a glass of 'vintage eighty-three:'

> 'And sat they round the table; oaken, old,
> But firm, and polish'd to a shining brown;
> And soon the good wife smiling came; both arms
> Burthen'd with beakers, rummers, and the bright
> Old Hoc; to cheer the eye and glad the heart.
> The Host and Pastor made their goblets ring.'

Here the morality is renewed, and proceeds till the clattering of Herman's wheels puts a period to the first canto. Herman then enters, and tells his mother that she took so much time to pack up her bundles, that the fugitives had all passed before he came to the place: but that he met a waggon driven by a strong tall damsel, in which was a woman newly delivered, with her infant; that he gave a part of his stores to them; that, after a little consideration, he put the rest of them into the hands of the female waggoner, to distribute among the fugitives whom she might overtake; and that then he 'returned thoughtful':

> 'Herman ceas'd. The Pharmist, apt at reply,
> Continu'd: Happy is the man in day
> Of sorrow, flight, and famine, such as this,
> Round whom, nor wife, nor child, cling in despair!
> Not to be a father is not to be a wretch:
> I feel my single state is now a blessing.'

Herman, who has fallen in love, does not approve of this doctrine, and expresses his dissent in terms of great force and dignity:

> 'Quick, and with ardour, Herman answer'd thus:
> Of such opinions who, Sir, can approve?'

Then follows a discourse on matrimony, which the Host sums up in this judicious manner:

> 'Our Herman's thought, in one sense, too, is just:
> But, though good is good; better, wife, is better.'

He then exhorts his son to marry a rich wife; who answers that he cannot endure an affected or taunting one, and tells a story of his having been ridiculed by one set of misses for his aukwardness. The father gets, somewhat unreasonably, into a passion; declaring that he has 'long endured the haughty airs of guest and traveller, and now claims respect and obedience in his turn.' Herman slips out of the room in a sort of pet, and the second canto is finished.

In the third canto, the innkeeper relates a long story of his vices to the corporation, of the turnpike roads which he repaired,

ired, and of the canals which he cleaned out, when he was ector. The apothecary enlarges on the beauty of his grotto his sign-post, which he intended to gild anew, but found the cost would be too great; and with this goodly conver- m the whole third canto is occupied.

ı Canto IV. the hostess follows her son, and finds him ıg under a tree at the farm: he unbosoms his *pet* to her, Achilles and Thetis: she taxes him with being in love with fair waggoner, and tells him that his father may probably nduced to consent; though she confesses that he has not y good temper;

> 'And chiefly after dinner do these forms
> Of temper goad him to petulance: but
> Mild evening comes, the fumes of wine escape.'

ıe then leads her son back to the house, and the fourth › is ended.

erman next confesses his love for the stranger maid to his :r; who is very much dispossd to be offended with this ıh freak, but is afraid to resist his wife and son together. At :h, it is determined that the apothecary and curate shall go the young man, to inquire about the damsel, and bring a true report of her to his parents. Herman drives them ıstantly to the village towards which his maiden was travel- ; and, stopping at the entrance, he sends them in to search inquire.—There is nothing very remarkable in this canto, ı magnificent description of the war with France, which considerably above the general tone of composition in the ı, though evidently from the hand of the same master. This ı war, it seems,

> 'Those sceptres banishing that wav'd
> Banishment, till that persons, thrones, and things
> Sacred and profane, lie overwhelm'd, frantic
> In confusion, and th' unsound earth is shaken
> To its foundations. Pestive are the times:
> Evils hew down evils; too hideous all
> For thought, yet striving all for mastery.
> Accursed be these mischiefs! Stigmatiz'd
> With curses, as it is with horrors, be
> This war; of wars the most detestable.'

the sixth canto, the two friends meet a grave person ıg the croud of fugitives, who declaims against the invaders ıtyle almost as exalted as that of the preceding quotation, tells them of a maiden who had turned on one of the ants, deprived him of his sword, and chased him away.— then find out Herman's beloved by her black corset and blue petticoat, discover that she was the heroine who performed this feat, and hear her praises from the mouth of the stranger.—Without farther deliberation, they conclude that she will make an excellent daughter-in-law to their host, and come back to comfort Herman with this intelligence. The youth, however, is desirous of dispatching the business, and is determined to finish his courtship and bring home his bride with him that very night. He, therefore, makes the curate drive home the apothecary, and stays behind to persevere in his wooing.

At the beginning of the seventh canto, the fair Dorothea arrives most opportunely at the very spot where the youth was, 'with a jug in either hand.' Herman asks her why she comes so far for water, to which question she makes the following most discreet answer:

> 'By horses, oxen, men, by linen wash'd,
> And boys that bathe, by wants improvident,
> For this hour anxious, heedless of the next,
> The village brook and ev'ry source is troubled:
> Therefore I sought this clear and healthful spring.'

Finding the water in such repute,

> —'oh! let
> Me drink; the Youth exclaim'd. And gave the maid:
> And deep the draught: it was the draught of love!
> Silent they sat, each leaning on a jug:
> Eloquent silence! not to be endur'd.

Dorothea therefore breaks it, and he answers by a speech which he intends for a declaration of love and an offer of marriage: but he expresses himself so unfortunately, that the maiden understands it as a proposal to hire her for a servant to his mother:—'I read your end,' says she,

> 'You wish a servant in your father's house;
> And think me not unfit, and not too proud.
> Sudden the proposal; and short shall be
> My answer. Servitude is honour, not
> Disgrace, when falling fortunes make it needful:
> And fall'n are mine, and therefore must I serve.'

The youth is so much delighted with her compliance on any terms, that he thinks not of setting her right as to the character in which he wishes her to express it, and they agree to set off together immediately: but she must first take leave of her friends;—and then the children flock about her,

> 'And bread demand, and fruit, and first to drink.
> Round went the jug; and drank the children, drank
> The mother, drank the daughters, drank the Judge.'

After all, she finds it hard to get away—her acquaintances ther;

> ' And then, with female friendly clamour, hung
> They round the maid, and kiss'd, and Herman dragg'd;
> The children clung, and cried; and only were
> Appeas'd by tales of promis'd cake, and fruit.'

In the eighth canto, the lovers trudge home together, and erman informs his Dorothea that his father is peevish and im-rious:—she still talks as a servant, but makes no scruple to an on her young master's arm:

> ' But came it total dark, the road unknown,
> And turn'd her foot, and fell she on her knee.'

The spirit of these lines, as well as the singular beauty of the tion, cannot escape the reader's observation. The maid gets again, and ends the canto with this good-humoured ex-ession:

> ' We'll halt a moment, lest
> Your parents blame your judgment; having brought
> No useful, but a limping, maiden home.'

In the last canto, the happy pair enter into the drinking rlour, ' the door of which seems too little for them;' and e antient host passing some joke on the sudden compliance f the damsel, she takes it greatly amiss, and confesses that e accepted the offer of being a servant in the family with e hope of becoming at some future time its young mistress:

> ' How zealous and how faithful will I serve,
> Said I; and, who can tell, in time, I may
> Become the mistress?'

This avowal draws on an explanation, which requires, how-ver, to be repeated several times; at length,

> ' The Pastor having first explain'd, up came
> Dorothea: and came with such a grace,
> So mild, so sweet, with such endearing courtesy
> And daughterly respect! and kiss'd the half
> Unwilling hand of the but half-forgiving Host.'

The lovers are then regularly betrothed, and the poem con-udes with a prayer (not from the parson but) from Herman, r happiness to himself and peace to the world.

If this be poetry, M. Pourceaugnac was very much mis-formed when he was assured that he had spoken prose all s life; and every tradesman may find materials for an epic the the daily transactions and conversation of his family. e work, however, deserves to be commemorated as a very remarkable instance of perverted taste, both in nations and individuals; for we are assured, from respectable authority, that the poem is very much read and admired throughout Germany. Göethe is beyond all doubt a writer of considerable genius, and Mr. Holcroft is very advantageously known to the greater part of our readers, both as a translator and an original author: but how far this publication will add to their respective fame, we shall not venture to prophecy.

Art. VII. *Horæ Mosaicæ*; or a View of the Mosaical Records, with Respect to their coincidence with profane Antiquity; their internal Credibility; and their Connection with Christianity; comprehending the Substance of Eight Lectures read before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1801; pursuant to the Will of the late Rev. John Bampton, A. M. By George Stanley Faber, A. M. Fellow of Linc. Coll. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14 s. Boards, Rivingtons. 1801.

The clergy are the professional advocates of Revelation, and it is peculiarly gratifying when they discharge this part of their duty with learning and ability: but for this purpose no slight attainments are requisite; and whether they are required to defend or to explain the sacred Scriptures, an intimate acquaintance with antient literature is absolutely indispensable. By the records of the Old Testament, we are carried backwards to a period prior to the classical æras of Greece and Rome; and it is only by considering the climate and people to which they belong, and the genius of the language in which they were written, that we can hope to attain a clear conception of their meaning. The study of Oriental science, therefore, is very necessary to a divine; since without it he cannot safely take the field against the deistical adversary, nor illustrate the Pentateuch to the satisfaction of well-informed and enlightened Christians. Mr. Faber is thoroughly sensible of this necessity; and in the course of the work before us, he has not omitted to display ample proofs of his literary qualifications. He has brought much learning together in defence of the authenticity of the Books of Moses, and in some respects manages the argument with ingenuity: but we think that he in general pushes it farther than the mere apologist for revelation is justified in carrying it, and contends for more than ought to be involved in a discussion respecting their authencity. In arguing with infidels, it is a matter of prudence to rest satisfied with establishing the grand point in debate. It is one thing to demonstrate the credibility of the Scriptures, and another to prove the orthodoxy of any given articles of faith;

and the reasoning designed to establish the former may be correct, while that which is meant to support the latter may be erroneous. The former concerns the Church of Christ in general; the latter, only one particular sect or system. A man may be convinced of the divinity of the Christian Religion, and yet reject the notion of the adulterous David being a type of the immaculate Saviour.

In reference to the undertaking before us, we are of opinion that Christians, by catching from the Jews a portion of the superstitious reverence entertained by this people for the five books of Moses, have often shrunk from that manly discussion of their contents which sound criticism requires. We forget that its language is that of the East, and not that of the West; that in its very nature it is luxuriant and figurative; and that the meaning of its glowing expressions is not to be appreciated by consulting the dictionaries of the cold regions of the North. It is not a little surprizing that, while Mr. Faber allows that 'the Asiatics were in the habit of veiling the most simple ideas in a poetical dress,' he should consider their strong figurative expressions as having the same import with similar phrases employed in our own tongue. "*To bear our griefs and carry our sorrows*," or "*to bear our sins*," considered as phrases used by ourselves, may be thought to import an actual transfer of sorrow and sin: but how the former of these was understood by the Orientals is placed beyond doubt in Matth. 8. 17. where our Saviour's *curing* of the sick is declared to be the fulfilment of the prophecy which says, 'He himself took our infirmities and bare our sicknesses." As the Pentateuch is poetical, it is probable that it is also figurative; yet Mr. Faber maintains in vol. 1. that the narrative is '*simple** and unadorned;' and that, 'instead of adopting the luxuriant language of allegory, it is remarkable for the majestic plainness of its expressions.' As he admits in vol. 2. p. 46,7 that the language of the inhabitants of the East was from the earliest ages 'replete with metaphor and allegory,' is it not more reasonable to suppose that the Pentateuch partook in part of this quality of Eastern literature, than to imagine the contrary? and if certain difficulties can be obviated by so natural a position, ought we not to avail ourselves of it? Will Faith be injured by being more accommodated to reason? Must the first chapters of the books of Genesis be interpreted as if they were the composition of a dull prosing English divine of the last (or present) century? After having made every allowance for the figurative nature of the composition, there will be sufficient characteristics remaining to distinguish the five books attributed to Moses from other antient writings, and to mark their superior value. Mr. Faber has well appreciated their merit in this passage:

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* What does Mr. F. mean by simple? A bold allegory may be conveyed by plain expressions.

'No mention is made of the real existence of any inferior deities, nor is there even a hint given of that canonization of mortals, which prevailed so universally in the mythology of the heathens. On the contrary, the religious worship of the Gentile world, though repeatedly mentioned by the author of the Pentateuch, is mentioned only in terms of the severest reprobation, and the most indignant contempt. The accommodating spirit of Paganism readily permitted an universal toleration, and encouraged the frequency of religious communion; but in the Jewish records, every species of worship, except that of the one true God, is pronounced to be vain and abominable. Like some detached and prominent mountain, in the neighbourhood of a vast and uniform plain, the code of the Hebrew legislator forms, in this respect, a striking contrast to the mythological fables of every other nation, and with a solitary majesty stands totally apart from the various systems of ancient idolatry. The grand characteristic of heathen devotion, however diversified by caprice, or modified by imposture, is uniformly Polytheism. The objects of adoration may indeed occasionally differ in number, titles, and attributes; but a multiplicity of deities still constitutes the general creed of paganism; and a dereliction of the pure worship of the Unity is equally chargeable upon the refinements of Europe and Asia, the degraded worship of the western hemisphere, and the base superstition of Africa. The wisdom of Egypt, the learning of Greece, the masculine energy of Rome, and the diversified knowledge of Hindostan, were alike unable to preserve them from the universal contagion. Israel alone was exempt, though far inferior to the literary part of the ancients in mere human philosophy, and the *exclusive* characteristic of the Pentateuch is the doctrine of the unity of the Godhead.'

Mr. Faber suspects that a degree of fancifulness will be attributed to him by some readers; and we must confess that, in our opinion, he has afforded reason for entertaining such an apprehension. He has not only dedicated these volumes to Mr. Bryant, but has adopted the conjectures of that gentleman in his *Antient Mythology*; and hence we are here told that Noah, the Ark, and the Mosaical Deluge are to be traced in the fables, traditions, and early histories of all nations. Not only Fohi, Menu, and Osiris mean the same person as Noah; but Saturn [*], Minos, Cronus [*], the Centaur, Janus [*], Dagon, and even en the goddess Minerva, are only different names of this cond father of mankind. There can be little doubt that any things in profane history have been originally copied, nd afterward corrupted, from the sacred writings: but to ssert, as Mr. F. does, that, '*all* antient history, whether it e sacred or whether it be prophane, uniformly relates to *the ery same facts*,' is a proposition very difficult to be established. Inundations are common events; and to suppose that every ccount of an overflow of waters, which obliged the inhabitants of the inundated country to fly to the summits of mountains, or to climb to the tops of tall trees, (instances of which Mr. F. gives,) has a relation to the Universal Deluge, is a species of credulity which cannot assist truth nor help to explain the sacred records.

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[*] The identity of these persons is attempted to be shewn by the signification of the names: thus *Saturn* comes from סתור נוח Satur Nuh, literally *the hidden Noah*, because he was shut up in the ark;

Though, however, the author contends for the identity of the facts related in sacred and prophane history, he will not admit that the Heathens borrowed from the Pentateuch, notwithstanding it is said to be the oldest book in the world: but he contends that, whatever their popular belief might be, 'it descended to them, not through the medium of Jewish antiquities, but down the stream of an universal and uninterrupted radition.' Yet how does this agree with his concluding observation on the comparison of the Mosaic with the Heathen osmogonies, 'that the accurate resemblance between the Mosaical account of the creation, and the various cosmogonies of the Heathen world, sufficiently shews that they all originated rom one common source?'

In the introduction to the antient Universal History, the eader may recollect that a comparison is instituted between he sacred and prophane cosmogonies, in order to point out the uperiority of the former over any of the latter.

After having endeavoured to exemplify the coincidence of he Mosaical with prophane history, with the view of proving he credibility of the Mosaical dispensation, Mr. F. proceeds o ascertain its internal credibility; for which purpose, he dopts the four following rules:

'I. That the promulger of it was not self-deceived into a belief, hat he was divinely commissioned; a deception, which could only originate, either from Enthusiasm, or from certain false appearances upposed to be miracles:

'II. That he was not an impostor; or, in other words, that he had no intention to deceive his followers:

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rk:—Cronus comes from קרן נוח Cron-Nuh, *the horned Noah*; and Janus is easily resolvable into Januach. Are such derivations satisfactory? More readers, we believe, will smile at than assent to them.

'III. That authentic documents have been handed down to posterity from about the time, when such events took place, without any corruption or interpolation, except such various readings as are the natural and necessary consequence of frequent transcription; and which may, generally speaking, be corrected by a careful collation of the best and most ancient copies:

'IV. And that the moral precepts be such, as are worthy of the goodness and purity of God; tending to promote virtue, and to discountenance vice.'

Each of these rules is separately applied to Moses and his religion. In the application of the last, the objections to the moral tendency of the writings of Moses, drawn from the command to extirpate the Canaanites, and from the ceremonial part of the law, are considered. To the first objection, the following answer is subjoined, which we quote without yielding to it our assent:

'The mercy of God is not to be exerted exclusively of his justice; otherwise we charge the most High with being the author of evil, and open wide the flood-gates of licentiousness and antinomianism. When the wickedness of the Sodomites was arrived at its full height, they were suddenly swept away by the whirlwind of divine vengeance: but who shall dare to impeach the mercy of God, on this account? When the enormities of the Canaanites were so flagrant, that the land was ready to spue them out, it pleased the Almighty to punish their iniquity by the intervention of second causes; by the sword of Israel, rather than by the immediate operation of his power. The crimes of both nations resembled each other in many particulars *, and the punishment of both was utter destruction. Even this alteration of the manner was not without reason; for what is it, that the Lord doeth in vain? The Israelites, the chosen people of God, with whom alone a pure form of worship was preserved in the midst of a rebellious and perverse generation, were warned by this dreadful example to persevere in the paths of holiness and piety, lest they also should feel the effects of the divine displeasure. Accordingly we find in the sequel of their history, that whenever they lapsed into idolatry, a severe punishment never failed to be the consequence of it; witness the Babylonian captivity; witness also, for a great though different crime, their present dispersion. And who shall presume on this account to blaspheme God, and to represent him as a being delighting in cruelty and bloodshed? As well might we term the stroke of the law tyranny and oppression, as the extirpation of the Canaanites an act of barbarity. Shall man inflict punishment upon man for theft or murder; and shall not the Almighty be allowed to interfere in the works of his own creation?

'But why slay the children? They could have been guilty of no crime.

'I answer, Did not the children likewise perish in the destruction [illegible] m? And whenever the life of a malefactor is taken away,

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'* See Levit. xviii.'

are not his innocent children and relatives punished also, by partaking of the infamy of their parent or brother[*]? In this life, the bands of relationship and affinity are so interwoven, that even a single one cannot be violently torn away, without affecting those, which are in immediate contact: but, in the kingdom of heaven, it is probable[†], that all this apparent injustice will be removed, and that those, who suffer guiltlessly here from the criminality of others, will receive a proportionable recompence in the world to come.'

An apology is offered for the distinction made by the law between unclean and clean beasts, on the ground that each of the former is emblematical of some vice and that each of the latter represents some virtue.

The connection between the Mosiacal and Christian dispensations is next illustrated; and a particular view is taken of the subject, as it respects both types and prophecies. Mr. Faber asserts 'the Gospel of Christ to be the end both of the simple worship of the Patriarchs and of the gorgeous solemnities of the temple.' No old fashioned divine of the puritanical school could be more adroit in explaining what is thought to be the typical language of the O. T. than this lecturer, who regards it as having a close affinity with the prophetical hieroglyphics. Hence Adam, Melchizedek, Isaac, Ismael, Joseph, Aaron, David, and Solomon are all types of Christ. It is hinted concerning Melchizedek, that 'he was even more than a mere type: that he was a visible manifestation of the son of God.' He is said in our Bibles to be 'without father and without mother:' but the Greek word asserts only that he was 'without genealogy.' Isaac and Ismael are represented as types, on the authority of Gal. 4. 22. *et seq.* but the Apostle merely states there that the story of the bond-woman and of the free-woman *may be allegorized* (ἅτινα ἀλληγορουμενα)[‡] Much use is made, in this part of the work, of

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'[*] The consequences are still more serious, in case of an attainder for high treason.'

'[†] I only venture to say *probable*, lest I should appear to be guilty of presumption; for in reality we are very much in the dark respecting this matter. The ultimate fate of Heathen nations is one of those hidden counsels of God, which he has not thought proper to reveal to us. Certain it is, that they who believe in the doctrine of original sin, cannot impeach the *justice* of God, even upon the supposition of his condemning Gentile infants; since all are by nature children of wrath, and, as our Church expresses it in her ninth article, "*deserve* God's wrath and damnation."'

[‡] When it is asserted that the Gospel, by these types, was preached to the antient church of Israel, the Almighty is represented as taking great pains to preach to mankind in a language which he was sure that they could not understand.

the Epistle to the Hebrews: but, as this Epistle is continually quoted in difficult points, it ought to be remembered that it is one of Eusebius's γραφοι αντιλεγομενοι. When such comparisons as the following are drawn, disgust rather than conviction must be produced on the mind of the free-thinker:

> 'The same divine Personage, of whom manna was last the type, is here again introduced under the image of a rock, even the rock of our salvation. As soon as it was struck, and the waters flowed, the thirst of Israel was assuaged. When Christ was wounded for our transgressions, and bruised for our iniquities; when he was lifted up on the cross, and pierced with the spear; an inexhaustible fountain was then opened, to quench the thirst of our souls, and to wash away all our impurities.'

A chapter is employed on the opinions of the Jews; and our brethren at Rome will be glad to know that,

> 'According to R. Salomon Jarchi, the Talmuds and Maimonides, when the priest sprinkled the blood of the victim upon the consecrated cakes, and other hallowed utensils, he was always careful to do it in the form of a cross. The same symbol was used when the kings and the high-priests were anointed. And whenever they had occasion to move the victims, or to wave the branches of the palm-tree, the motion was always made so as to express the figure of a cross.'

Protestants, however, who care not whether the Jews waved their palm branches in the form of a cross, a triangle, or a circle, will unfortunately be little edified by this information.

The connection between the Old and the New dispensation is more unquestionably proved by prophecy than by the doctrine of types; and in this division of the subject, we follow Mr. F. with satisfaction. Here, however, he stands on ground which has been repeatedly occupied.

The author concludes with stating the imperfections of the Mosaical dispensation, and the necessity of that more perfect one, established in Christ, which purifies the heart and points to a world to come.

Through the whole of this discussion, Mr. Faber evinces a strong attachment to every point of reputed orthodoxy; and we cannot refrain from adding that he seems more solicitous to please those who already belong to the church, than to increase the number of Christian believers on general principles. We lament the common indiscretion of learned divines in this respect. If Faith be more valuable for being embarrassed with absurdities and childish fancies, we had better at once apply to the Holy Father at Rome to afford us his ghostly direction: but, if we exult in the name of *Protestants*, let us establish our right to that title by boldly *protesting* against all unscriptural conceits, however ingeniously supported; and let us prefer the plain doctrines of the Gospel to all the wild and inexplicable formularies of human invention.

Art. VIII. *A Treatise on Painting*, by Leonardo da Vinci. Faithfully translated from the original Italian, and now first digested under proper Heads, by John Francis Rigaud, Esq. Academician of the Royal Academy of Painting at London, &c. Illustrated with twenty-three Copper-plates, and other Figures. To which is prefixed a new Life of the Author, drawn up from authentic Materials till now inaccessible, by John Sidney Hawkins, Esq. F.A.S. Royal 8vo. 13s. 6d. Demy Paper. 9s. 6d. Boards. J. Taylor. 1802.

None are so desirous of rendering justice to departed genius, as those whose souls are warmed by its sacred fire. As the artist advances in his enthusiastic career, he cherishes an increasing respect for his illustrious predecessors; and while he receives the laurels of fame from his cotemporaries, he weaves garlands for the busts of those whose works stimulated his exertions, aided his studies, and pointed out to him the road to celebrity. Mr. Rigaud, being a painter, and highly appreciating the merit of Leonardo da Vinci, felt that he should derive pleasure from exhibiting his well-known Treatise on Painting to the British public with superior advantage. He has, therefore, not only given a new translation, but has formed a better arrangement of the materials, and has added a new set of plates, engraven with more attention to correctness of drawing than any which are to be found in former editions. The diagrams are also now inserted in their proper places in the text, instead of being, as before, collected all together in two plates at the end.

The translation of this Treatise into english, which appeared first in 1721, and of which a new impression was published in 1796, is now out of print; and Mr. Rigaud informs us that he was induced to step forwards, and to undertake the office of re-translating it, because, on comparing the former versions (both French and English) with the original, he found that many passages might at once be more concisely and more faithfully rendered:

'His object, therefore, (he adds,) has been to attain these ends, and as rules and precepts like the present allow but little room for the decorations of style, he has been more solicitous for fidelity, perspicuity, and precision, than for smooth sentences, and well-turned periods.

'Nor was this the only advantage which it was found the present opportunity would afford; for the original work consisting in fact of a number of entries made at different times, without any regard to their subjects, or attention to method, might rather in that state be considered as a chaos of intelligence, than a well-digested treatise. It has now, therefore, for the first time, been attempted to place each chapter under the proper head or branch of the art to which it belongs; and by so doing, to bring together those which (though related and nearly connected in substance) stood, according to the original arrangement, at such a distance from each other as to make it troublesome to find them even by the assistance of an index; and difficult, when found, to compare them together.'

Notes are also subjoined to the text, in order to remove obscurities; and by references from one part to another, the work is not only shewn to be a much more complete system than those who were best acquainted with it imagined, but is made more useful than it otherwise might be.

The publication does credit to the translator and editor, by whom no pains nor expence seem to have been spared in preparing it for the press.

Mr. Rigaud's friend, Mr. Hawkins, has considerably augmented the value of this impression by his new life of Leonardo da Vinci; which is not a mere repetition from former biographers, nor a compilation from vague reports, but is drawn from memoranda furnished by the manuscript collections of Leonardo himself, which have lately passed from Italy into France, and are now in the library of the National Institute. According to this sketch, it appears that Leonardo was the son of a notary of Vinci, a village situated in the valley of Arno, below Florence; that he was born in the year 1452, and that he died near Amboise in France, on the 2d of May 1519. In giving an account of Mr. Chamberlaine's *Imitations of Original Designs* by Leonardo da Vinci (see M. R. Vol. xxv. p. 233. N. S.) we stated the common report that this celebrated painter expired in the arms of Francis I. at Fontainebleau: but Venturi, who printed at Paris in 1797 a work intitled "*Essai sur les Ouvrages physico-mathematiques de Leonardo da Vinci*," induces us to question this fact, and his present biographer has perhaps discovered the real truth:

'The King, during the continuance of his last illness, frequently honoured him with visits; and it has been said, that in one of these Leonardo exerting himself beyond his strength, to shew his sense of this prince's condescension, was seized with a fainting fit, and that the King stooping forward to support him, Leonardo expired in his arms, on the 2d of May 1519. Venturi has taken some pains to disprove this fact, by shewing, that though in the interval between the years 1516 and 1519, the French court passed eleven months at different times at Amboise; yet on the 1st of May 1519, it was certainly not here, but at St. Germains. History, however, when incorrect, is more frequently a mixture of true and false, than a total fabrication of falsehood; and it is therefore not impossible, or improbable, that the King might shew such an act of kindness in some of his visits when he was resident at Amboise, and that Leonardo might recover from that fit, and not die till some time after; at which latter time the Court and the King might be absent at St. Germains. This is surely a more rational supposition than to imagine such a fact could have been invented without any foundation for it whatever.'

Vasari has related the following anecdote of Leonardo's early genius and application:

'One of Pietro's (father of Leonardo) neighbours meeting him one day at Florence, told him he had been making a shield, and would be glad of his assistance to get it painted; Pietro undertook this office, and applied to his son to make good the promise. When the shield was brought to Leonardo, he found it so ill made, that he was obliged to get a turner to smooth it; and when that was done, he began to consider with what subject he should paint it. For this purpose he got together, in his apartment, a collection of live animals, such as lizards, crickets, serpents, silk-worms, locusts, bats, and other creatures of that kind, from the multitude of which, variously adapted to each other, he formed an horrible and terrific animal, emitting fire and poison from his jaws, flames from his eyes, and smoke from his nostrils; and with so great earnestness did Leonardo apply to this, that though in his apartment the stench of the animals that from time to time died there, was so strong as to be scarcely tolerable, he, through his love to the art, entirely disregarded it. The work being finished, Leonardo told his father he might now see it; and the father one morning coming to his apartment for that purpose, Leonardo, before he admitted him, placed the shield so as to receive from the window its full and proper light, and then opened the door. Not knowing what he was to expect, and little imagining that what he saw was not the creatures themselves, but a mere painted representation of them, the father, on entering and beholding the shield, was at first staggered and shocked; which the son perceiving, told him he might now send the shield to his friend, as, from the effect which the sight of it had then produced, he found he had attained the object at which he aimed. Pietro, however, had too much sagacity not to see that this was by much too great a curiosity for a mere countryman, who would never be sensible of its value; he therefore privately bought for his friend an ordinary shield, rudely painted with the device of an heart with an arrow through it, and sold this for an hundred ducats to some merchants at Florence, by whom it was again sold for three hundred to the Duke of Milan.'

To this well-written Life is subjoined a Catalogue of the Works of Leonardo, under the heads of Architecture, Models of Sculpture, Drawings, and Paintings.

It is not necessary for us to give any opinion respecting the value of the original Treatise; nor would any extract be required, but for the purpose of displaying Mr. Rigaud's abilities as a translator. On this account we shall venture on one quotation; and, in order to gratify at the same time the *amiable* sensibilities of those who love war, we shall lay before them Leonardo's recipe

'*How to compose a Battle.*

'First, let the air exhibit a confused mixture of smoke, arising from the discharge of artillery and musquetry, and the dust raised by the horses of the combatants; and observe, that dust being of an earthy nature, is heavy; but yet, by reason of its minute particles, it is easily impelled upwards, and mixes with the air; nevertheless, it naturally falls downwards again, the most subtle parts of it alone gaining any considerable degree of elevation, and at its utmost height it is so thin and transparent, as to appear nearly of the colour of the air. The smoke, thus mixing with the dusty air, forms a kind of dark cloud, at the top of which it is distinguished from the dust by a bluerish cast, the dust retaining more of its natural colour. On that part from which the light proceeds, this mixture of air, smoke, and dust, will appear much brighter than on the opposite side. The more the combatants are involved in this turbulent mist, the less distinctly they will be seen, and the more confused will they be in their lights and shades. Let the faces of the musketeers, their bodies, and every object near them, be tinged with a reddish hue, even the air or cloud of dust; in short, all that surrounds them. This red tinge you will diminish, in proportion to their distance from the primary cause. The groups of figures, which appear at a distance between the spectator and the light, will form a dark mass upon a light ground; and their legs will be more undetermined and lost as they approach nearer to the ground; because there the dust is heavier and thicker.

'If you mean to represent some straggling horses, running out of the main body, introduce also some small clouds of dust, as far distant from each other as the leap of the horse, and these little clouds will become fainter, more scanty, and diffused, in proportion to their distance from the horse. That nearest to his feet will consequently be the most determined, smallest, and the thickest of all.

'Let the air be full of arrows, in all directions; some ascending, some falling down, and some darting straight forwards. The bullets of the musketry, though not seen, will be marked in their course by a train of smoke, which breaks through the general confusion. The figures in the fore-ground should have their hair covered with dust, as also their eye-brows, and all parts liable to receive it.

'The victorious party will be running forwards, their hair and other light parts flying in the wind, their eye-brows lowered, and the motion of every member properly contrasted; for instance, in moving the right foot forwards, the left arm must be brought forwards also. If you make any of them fallen down, mark the trace of his fall on the slippery gore-stained dust; and where the ground is less impregnated with blood, let the print of men's feet and of horses, that have passed that way, be marked. Let there be some horses dragging the bodies of their riders, and leaving behind them a furrow, made by the body thus trailed along.

' The countenances of the vanquished will appear pale and dected. Their eye-brows raised, and much wrinkled about the foreead and cheeks. The tip of their noses somewhat divided from the ostrils by arched wrinkles terminating at the corner of the eyes, iose wrinkles being occasioned by the opening and raising of the ostrils; the upper lips turned up, discovering the teeth. Their iouths wide open, and expressive of violent lamentation. One may e seen fallen wounded on the ground, endeavouring with one hand) support his body, and covering his eyes with the other, the palm f which is turned towards the enemy. Others running away, and ith open mouths seeming to cry aloud. Between the legs of the ombatants let the ground be strewed with all sorts of arms; as roken shields, spears, swords, and the like. Many dead bodies iould be introduced, some entirely covered with dust, others in art only; let the blood, which seems to issue immediately from the ound, appear of its natural colour, and running in a winding ourse, till, mixing with the dust, it forms a reddish kind of mud. ome should be in the agonies of death; their teeth shut, their es wildly staring, their fists clenched, and their legs in a distorted osition. Some may appear disarmed, and beaten down by the emy, still fighting with their fists and teeth, and endeavouring to ke a passionate, though unavailing revenge. There may be also straggling horse without a rider, running in wild disorder; his ane flying in the wind, beating down with his feet all before him, d doing a deal of damage. A wounded soldier may also be seen lling to the ground, and attempting to cover himself with his ield, while an enemy bending over him endeavours to give him the ishing stroke. Several dead bodies should be heaped together ider a dead horse. Some of the conquerors, as having ceased fightg, may be wiping their faces from the dirt, collected on them by e mixture of dust with the water from their eyes.

' The *corps de reserve* will be seen advancing gaily, but cautiously, eir eye-brows directed forwards, shading their eyes with their nds to observe the motions of the enemy, amidst clouds of dust and oke, and seeming attentive to the orders of their chief. You may o make their commander holding up his staff, pushing forwards, d pointing towards the place where they are wanted. A river iy likewise be introduced, with horses fording it, dashing the ter about between their legs, and in the air, covering all the adjant ground with water and foam. Not a spot is to be left without ne marks of blood and carnage.'

The copper-plates are neatly executed; and a good porit of Leonardo da Vinci, from a picture in the Florentine useum, is prefixed as a Frontispiece.

ART. IX. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,* for the Year 1802. Part I.

[*Article concluded from p.* 48.]

MEDICAL *and* ANATOMICAL PAPERS.

THE Croonian Lecture. On the Power of the Eye to adjust itself to different Distances, when deprived of the Crystalline Lens. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.—The design of this paper is to shew that the adjustment of the eye, to see objects at different distances, does not depend on any internal changes in the crystalline lens. In the year 1794 an opportunity was offered in the case of Benjamin Clerk, from one of whose eyes the lens had been removed, of determining (seemingly in a satisfactory manner) that this eye retained a power of adjustment; and in the year 1798 a case occurred of a man from whom a cataract of each eye had been extracted, and who afterward saw so distinctly as to admit of ascertaining, without the aid of glasses, what were the ranges of the eye's adjustment.

Conclusive as these experiments were believed to have been, Dr. Young called them in question; alleging, from other experiments, that the adjustment of the eye to different distances depends on the crystalline lens; and that the phænomenon in question arose from the smallness of aperture, not from any power of adjustment in the eye. Accordingly, Dr. Young constructed an optometer to be applied to presbyopic eyes; when the eye, by looking along a line through a small convex lens, before which is placed a card with two narrow slits in it, near enough to each other to be within the limits of the pupil, will see the line as two lines, crossing each other at the point of perfect vision; and every eye, that has the power of adjustment, will make the lines cross in different places, when adjusted to different distances. Finding that, with eyes deprived of the crystalline lens, the crossing of the lines was seen only at one point, Dr. Young concluded that the power of adjustment was lost.

Mr. Home repeated the experiments with Dr. Young's optometer. In his own case, he found that the lines did not cross in two different situations; and several of his friends, on trying the experiment, were equally unable to make the lines cross any where except at one point. In people under 30 years of age, however, the place of intersection could be varied: but, on improving the instrument, and practising with it, older persons and Mr. H. himself made the lines cross at two different points, at several inches distance from each other. Henry Miles, from whose eyes the lens had been extracted, and who could see without the aid of glasses, next used this instrument; and he made the lines intersect at $8\frac{3}{10}$ inches, the nearest distance, and at $13\frac{1}{10}$, the farthest. From this and many other experiments, it appeared that this man's eye was not deprived of the power of adjustment.

A Description of the Anatomy of the Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.—Two specimens, one a male and the other a female, preserved in spirit of wine, furnished the opportunity for the anatomical investigation here recorded. Some facts belonging to the natural history of this new animal were communicated by Governor Hunter, who has seen them alive in New South Wales: from whom we learn that it is an inhabitant of fresh water lakes; that, like the turtle, it only emerges from the water occasionally to breathe, and does not swim on the surface; and that it is supposed to feed in the muddy places surrounding the lakes, but on what substance is unknown.—The figure of the animal is now commonly understood. There is no fat between the skin and the muscles; and no organs of generation could be externally discovered nor any nipples. A minutely accurate description is given of the bill; and a peculiarity in the structure of quadrupeds is observable in this animal, which has two small teeth on the tongue. It has four webbed feet.

Mr. Home then enters into a more complete explanation of the internal parts of the Ornithorhynchus. The heart is double, *i.e.* has two auricles and two ventricles, with the *foramen ovale* closed, and no communication between the ventricles; and it may be said to be above the lungs. The small intestines are four feet four inches long. The colon and rectum are one foot four inches long. The fifth pair of nerves is uncommonly large, and supplies the bill; which probably possesses great sensibility, and is capable of nice discrimination in its feeling.—Various peculiarities in the internal structure of the organs of generation, male and female, are also related; and Mr. Home concludes that there is every reason for believing that this animal is *ovi-viviparous* * in its mode of generation.

Three excellent plates accompany the paper, representing the structure of many of the most important parts of this new animal.

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* Whether the author has introduced the word *ovi-viviparous* from his own judgment, or that of others, we know not: but we are inclined to protest against the innovation, because we do not see that any new import is conveyed by this term; and therefore *oviparous*, which has the recommendation of brevity, is preferable.

Although we are indebted to the author for the present memoir, it rather excites than gratifies our curiosity. We do not feel convinced of either the accuracy or the completeness of the anatomical details, on account of the disfiguration and even obliteration of many of the parts by the action of the spirit of wine, and by spontaneous compositions and decompositions. A greater number of specimens, also, will be requisite to attain perfect exactness.

PHILOSOPHICAL *and* MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

The Bakerian Lecture. On the Theory of Light and Colours. By Thomas Young, M.D. F.R.S. &c.—This paper is written to establish the undulatory system of light. On such a subject, decisive proofs are not to be procured; and philosophers, in their most successful enterprizes, can only select similar phænomena, arrange them under the same class, and shew that they can be conceived to proceed from the action, or existence, of the same principle. In the present instance, the phænomena of light and colours are to be explained; and the principle of action, by which light is supposed to be impelled and regulated, is undulation.—The undertaking is difficult, for our immortal Newton was not completely satisfied with what he had thought and written on the subject.

Dr. Young is of opinion that not only the few phænomena which admit of explanation on the system in which light is supposed to consist of corpuscules, and to be impelled as a projectile, are explicable by the undulatory theory, but that many others, long known though never understood, become perfectly intelligible on that hypothesis. He was induced to examine whether it be not competent to this effect, by observing the phænomena of thin plates:

> ' These (says Dr. Y.) are indeed so singular, that their general complexion is not without great difficulty reconcileable to any theory, however complicated, that has hitherto been applied to them; and some of the principal circumstances have never been explained by the most gratuitous assumptions; but it will appear, that the minutest particulars of these phenomena, are not only perfectly consistent with the theory which will now be detailed, but that they are all the necessary consequences of that theory, without any auxiliary suppositions; and this by inferences so simple, that they become particular corollaries, which scarcely require a distinct enumeration.'

A considerable portion of the present memoir is occupied with passages from the writings of Newton, in order to prove that he originally suggested the undulatory system of light. This point, we think, is made out: but we do not consider the ar [illegible] ually successful in answering the objections started by Newton himself against the doctrine. We have already remarked, that the subject is difficult; and therefore, though Dr. Young has bestowed on it much attention, and though we have read his observations with care, it is not surprizing if we do not find ourselves converted to the truth of his theory; nor if against particular parts of it, we should in a minute examination enter our protest. Instances also occur of gratuitous assumptions, of hypotheses too extensive, and of conclusions not strictly logical: but, as the memoir itself may soon be read, the curious and philosophic will do well to peruse it, and judge for themselves.

On the Independence of the Analytical and Geometrical Methods of Investigation; and on the Advantages to be derived from their Separation. By Robert Woodhouse, A. M. Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge.—In a former paper *, Mr. W. endeavoured to shew that imaginary quantities (as they are called) formed a part of the symbolical language of Algebra, and that the operations performed with them were strict and logical. He likewise attempted to overthrow the notion, that the justness of the above-mentioned operations rested on an analogy between certain curves; such an analogy being in his opinion altogether fictitious and imaginary, since the curves themselves were the mere creatures of definition and convention, and their properties simply results of calculation.

With somewhat of a similar spirit, the present memoir is composed: in which the author affirms that certain expressions, demonstrations, &c. in geometrical language, and from geometrical principles introduced into Analytical Investigation, are not essentially necessary; that the language of Analysis is fully competent to institute and to conduct its own processes; and that, when it borrows the terms of Geometry, it endangers the accuracy and precision of its own reasonings. To support this opinion by instances, Mr. W. first takes certain expressions, as $\frac{\dot{x}}{1+x}$, $\frac{\dot{x}}{(1-x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$. The fluent of the former is generally assigned by means of the hyperbola: but then, according to this author, a mode of expression is merely borrowed; since, in order to find what $\int\frac{\dot{x}}{1+x}$ really is, the form is expanded into a series, and the integral of each term taken. This mode of computing, however, does not require the existence of an hyperbola; and consequently, its origin and value are independent of such a curve.

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* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxxvii. p. 85.

Again,

$\int x\cdot \left\{1-x^2\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ is said to equal the arc of the circle rads. 1, sin. x; but nothing is gained by this; since, in order to find the arc of a circle, $x\cdot\,(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ is expanded, and the integrals of the several parts taken and added together. To shew (if it is necessary to add any thing more on so clear a point) that $\int x\cdot \left\{1-x^2\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}} =$ arc circle, is merely a mode of expression borrowed from geometry; suppose the investigation of the properties of motion to have been prior to investigation of the properties of extension, for that the science of geometry was first invented is properly an accidental circumstance, then, such an expression as $\int x\cdot \left\{1-x^2\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ might have occurred, and its value must have been exhibited as it *really* is now, that is, by expanding it, and integrating the several terms.'

The connection, then, between the integrals of expressions, as $\frac{x\cdot}{1+x}$, $\frac{x\cdot}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ &c. and the areas of hyberbolas and arcs of circles, is (according to Mr. W.) altogether arbitrary and accidental; and he shews that the integrals of the above expressions are, analytically, to be thus expressed:

$$\int\frac{x\cdot}{1+x} = z \text{ when } 1+x = e^{z}$$

$$\int\frac{x\cdot}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = z \text{ when } x = \frac{e^{z\sqrt{-1}} - e^{-z\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}}$$

e being such, that $(e-1)-\frac{1}{2}(e-1)^2+\frac{1}{3}(e-1)^3-\&c.=1$

In a similar manner, the integrals of several other expressions are given.

By means of integrating $\int\frac{x\cdot}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ according to the above manner, the expressions for the sines and cosines in series, ascending by the powers of the arc, are very simply and easily obtained.

In order farther to establish and illustrate his opinion, the author gives the analytical solution of certain theorems relative to sines, cosines, &c. the analytical expression for the roots of the cubic in the irreducible case, and the analytical resolution of $x^n \mp a^n$, into its quadratic factors; on which occasion he says:

'Since the above resolution of $x^n \mp a^n$ into its quadratic factors would, it appears to me, be strictly true, if such a curve as the circle had never been invented, nor its properties investigated, it is erro-
suppose that the theorem of COTES is essentially necessary
tegration of certain differential forms. That analytical

science was advanced by the discovery of this theorem, is indeed true; but the circle and its lines were no farther useful or [not] necessary, than as they afforded a mode of expressing, in geometrical language, an analytical truth. What is analytically expressed, may be analytically combined and resolved; and, if COTES, by the properties of figures, has expressed his discovery, it is because the mathematicians of the time in which he lived, were more skilful and dexterous with the geometrical method than with the analytical.'

In the latter part of his paper, the author brings under one point of view the analytical and geometrical methods, and compares them on the grounds of perspicuity, accuracy, and easy and extensive application. As, however, Mr. W. seems already to have compressed his arguments, and as the subject will not interest the generality of readers, we shall not attempt an abstract of this reasoning, but refer to the paper itself, and close our account of it with recapitulating its object and contents in the words of the writer:

> 'The principal object of the present paper is to shew, that the analytical calculus needs no aid from geometry, and ought to reject it, relying entirely on its own proper resources. By this means, it would gain perspicuity, precision, and conciseness; advantages not to be lightly estimated, by any one who has a regard to certainty and demonstration, or considers the bulk to which scientific treatises have of late years swelled.
>
> 'In order to prove and illustrate the opinion I wished to establish, I directed my search to those cases which have been always thought to require the aid of the geometrical method. By a purely analytical process, I have traced the origin and derivation of certain fluxionary expressions, usually referred to logarithms and circular arcs. I have given demonstrations of the series for the sine of an arc in terms of the arc; of the analytical formula for the root of a cubic equation in the irreducible case; of the resolution of $x^n \mp a^n$ into quadratic factors; of the series for the chord, &c. of a multiple arc in terms of the simple arc, &c. which demonstrations, with as much confidence as I dare assume, knowing how fallaciously we judge of our own performances, I affirm to be strict and direct; established without artifices, and without foreign aid drawn from geometrical theorems and the properties of curves. In some parts of this paper, the subjects, for their importance, may be thought to be too slightly discussed; the fear of appearing prolix, has perhaps driven me into brevity and obscurity. In other parts, what I have advanced may be remote from common apprehension, or contrary to received opinion: but here I make no apology; for, what I have written, has been written only after long meditation, and from no love of singularity. "If I cannot add to truth," I do not desire distinction from "the heresies of paradox."

This part of the volume concludes with the usual meteorological journal. Part II. has been announced, and we hope shortly to report its contents.

Art. X. *The Institutions of the Practice of Medicine;* delivered in a course of Lectures. By Jo. Baptist Burserius, de Kanifeld; translated from the Latin, by Mr. Cullen Brown. In 5 Vols. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 519. 8s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

The commencement of this extensive work was announced in our 36th vol. N.S. p. 354. In the present volume, the author resumes the consideration of febrile diseases, and has taken great pains to collect and arrange the various divisions of remittent and compound continued fevers, which are to be found among systematic writers. The treatment recommended by him has few peculiarities; and here, as well as in the other parts, his work seems rather to be collected from the writings of others, than to be the result of his own experience. The divisions which he adopts are too numerous to be practically useful; and his diagnostics, particularly when taken from the degrees of diseases alone, are in general too nice, and sometimes unfounded.

In the chapter on puerperal fever, the author enters into a very extensive pathological view of the various opinions on the nature of this disease. After having attempted, at considerable length, to shew the fallacy of most of them, he concludes with Riverius, in supposing that there are a great number of causes from which this disease may originate; and that different species of it will be produced, according to the variety and noxious power of those causes, and according to the situation of the parts affected. Hence it is evident that he does not confine himself to the disease as accurately described by our English physicians, Hulme, Leake, and White, but erroneously considers as puerperal fever, every species of febrile affection to which child-bed women are liable.

M. Burserius commences the consideration of exanthematic febrile diseases, with some judicious observations on the circumstances of phænomena or prognosis common to all of them, and then proceeds to the particular discussion of Erysipelas; which he considers as 'a phlogosis, caused by some thin warm acrid humour, very like that called by the ancients the bilious part of the blood, generated by some means internally, affecting first the nervous system, and next the heart and arteries, in consequence of the febrile motion gradually separating from the other fluids, and forced out into part of the skin, primarily fixed there, irritating and inflaming, particularly the part where it lurks'.—He divides it into three species, the idiopathic, accidental, and symptomatic, and mentions some other divisions which he considers as of less importance. In the accidental, we presume, he includes the Erythrema of Nosologists; though it would have been better (with Cullen and Sauvages,) to have considered it as a distinct genus. The practical observations are good: but the ignis Sacer, Zoster, or Zona, which is generally deemed a species of Erysipelas, is regarded by M. Burserius as a separate complaint, differing in its causes and phænomena, but requiring nearly the same treatment.

Scarlet fever is divided into the benign and malignant: but in neither does the author describe the occurrence of ulcerations in the throat, which constitute the *Scarlatina Anginosa*,—that form of the complaint in which it most frequently presents itself. He mentions, indeed, from authors, several peculiar forms of *Scarlatina Maligna*, in which 'inflammatory angina, which sometimes terminated in gangrene and sphacelus,' was observed: but he seems to consider these as rare deviations from the usual form of the disease. His treatment is judicious: but the ideas which he entertains of the inflammatory nature of the angina, in those cases in which it does occur, leads him to recommend bleeding too freely in the commencement of the complaint. The author does not mention the employment of early and repeated vomiting; nor does he seem to be acquainted with the treatise of Dr. Withering on this subject, which so well deserves attention.

Three short chapters are devoted to the *Urticaria*, *Essera*, and *Pemphigus*; after which the author enters on the last sub-ect of the present volume, the consideration of measles. This omplaint, like the scarlet fever, he divides into the benign nd malignant; and he gives a full and accurate account of its hænomena, with the mode of cure most generally adopted. He has no doubt of its having occurred more than once: but we must disagree with him on the admissibility of a part of the evidence on this point; where the authors considered the semblance between the scarlet eruption and measles as so reat, that they concluded that these diseases differed only in egree.

In his account of the malignant measles, M. Burserius llows principally the history of the species of this complaint scribed by Sydenham as having prevailed in London in the ar 1674; and in his plan of cure he makes a judicious se-ction from the practical observations of Sydenham, Morton, offman, and Watson. The volume is concluded by a few servations on the occurrence of measles without eruption, d on inoculation of measles as recommended some years ago Dr. Home of Edinburgh.

Through the whole of this volume, the author preserves a eady devotion to the humoral pathology, on which he con-ders the various symptoms of the diseases hitherto noticed by him as being satisfactorily explained. Of the application of his principles, our readers may judge from the observations on Erysipelas which we have quoted above.

In the translation, we remark a considerable number of Scotticisms; such as *free of*, *notwithstanding of*, *situate*, *proven*, &c. There are also many typographical faults, not noticed in the table of errata.

Art. XI. *Ægyptiaca:* or Observations on certain Antiquities of Egypt. In two Parts. Part I. The History of Pompey's Pillar elucidated. Part II. Abdollatif's Account of the Antiquities of Egypt, written in Arabic, A. D. 1203. Translated into English, and illustrated with Notes. By J. White, D.D. Professor of Arabic in the University of Oxford, &c. Part I. 4to. pp. 240. 1l. 1l. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

It is always with us a source of regret, when circumstances concur to protract our account of works of merit and importance, for a considerable period after their publication; and in the instance of the volume before us, the nature of the case makes us particularly lament the delay. When we reviewed Professor White's Edit. of Abdollatiph's History of Egypt, in our 37th vol. N. S. we incidentally mentioned his *Ægyptiaca*, and stated that we had then perused this performance; and truly sorry are we to be thus late in offering our farther remarks on it to the world. Physiologists have remarked that a gentle stimulus will not act, if applied immediately after a strong one; yet now, when all the stupendous monuments of Upper and Lower Egypt have been so recently presented to the public view, we are to call the attention of our readers to observations on the solitary pillar of Pompey. We must beg them to remember, however, that this *order of things* is to be attributed to *us*, and not to Dr. White; and we must assure them that the Doctor has employed so much skill in the management of his materials, and has so concentrated all the rays of light afforded by antient and modern writers on this subject, that, if he has failed to elucidate the history of the magnificent column of Alexandria, they may despair of ever obtaining any satisfactory knowledge concerning it. Let us, then, with pleasure and with thankfulness, attend on so well informed and so persevering a guide, in this dubious path of history.

We are disposed to think, with the Professor, that this Pillar was not originally an isolated structure, but an appendage to some stupendous edifice which is now entirely destroyed. Its present appearance on a naked eminence, without the walls of Alexandria, has served to excite the false taste of raising solitary columns; which are always unmeaning and unsatisfactory, and, when of small dimensions, are disgusting. A pillar like that which is the subject of this inquiry, *ninety-two feet in height* from the ground, the shaft of which is one vast piece of red granite, *sixty-six feet one inch* long and *nine feet one inch* in diameter, must in any situation be a grand and striking object: but the little imitations of it, which often occur, serve only to provoke ridicule at the vanity and defective judgment of those who erect them.

The learned Professor's first object is to ascertain the time of the formation of this celebrated column, and the name of its founder. Conceiving, however, that erroneous opinions on these heads have prevailed, with the sanction of respectable authorities, he considers himself as under the necessity of giving his reasons for rejecting them all before he attempts to establish any hypothesis of his own. Though the pillar bears the name of *Pompey*, it is generally admitted that this appellation is the effect of mere vulgar error, and therefore Dr. White does not waste his time in seriously labouring to refute it. The conjectures which he particularly examines are those of our countryman Wortley Montagu, Brotier, and Michaelis; the first of whom attributes the column to Vespasian, the second to Ptolemy Euergetes, and the third to Severus. The sentiments of the two former gentlemen are more briefly dismissed than those of Michaelis; who, in his translation of Abulfeda's short account of Alexandria, has rendered عمود السواري (*Amúd Issawâri*) the name given to the column by his Arabian writer, "the Pillar of Severus." Dr. White, however, (as we noticed in our account of his edition of Abdollatiph, e M. R. vol. 37, p. 247. N. S.*) maintains that the expression *mûd Issawâri*, by which the Alexandrian Pillar was distinuished in the middle ages, has no other signification than *The Column of the Pillars*;" and he adduces ample evidence prove his assertion. The first part of the appendix contains critical examination of the words in the Arabic text of bulfeda, which Michaelis has translated *Columnam Severi*. e observes that عمود السواري *Amúd Issawâri* is e same as *Amúd il Sawâri*, the *L* of the article *il* being, by well known rule of Grammar, changed into *S*, and coalescing ith the word *Sawâri*. *Amúd*, as is allowed by all, signifies a

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* The reader will excuse the necessary repetition, in this place, the opinion of Dr. White which we before stated.

Column; *Is* stands for *Il*, the genitive case of the article *Al*; and *Sawâri* is the word of which the meaning is to be sought. 'Now, (continues Dr. W.) *Sawâri* cannot be the Arabic word for *Severus*, because no Arabic writer ever expresses the Latin name *Severus* in this manner; and it is particularly in point to observe, that Abulfeda himself in his great historical work writes it سيوارس *Sewâros*; and that the Arabic writers constantly employ the final س or *S*, in expressing those Latin names which terminate in *Us*.' Hence it follows that '*Sawâri* is no proper name, but an appellative; and the different meanings of this word in Arabic, as properly given by Golius, are four: سارية *Sâriyat*, plur. سواري *Sawâri*, (1) Columna. (2) Trabs. (3) Navis. (4) Nubes noctu oborta.' Thus it appears that the name given by the Arabic writers to the Alexandrian Column was *the Column of the Pillars*; on account, as Dr. W. conjectures, 'of its then proudly towering over a numerous assemblage of pillars of inferior magnitude and splendour.' May not the Arabic appellation merely signify 'the pillar of pillars,' or the pillar *κατ' ἐξοχην*?

However this may be, the error of Michaelis is detected and the mistaken version of the passage of Abulfeda is proved to afford no more satisfactory information with respect to the history of the Column, than the suspected medal of Vespasian supposed to have been found by Wortley Mortagu, or the illegible Inscription mentioned by Brotier.

The appellative, "*the Column of the Pillars*," suggests an idea to Professor White, on which he frames his own hypothesis. He maintains, with much learning, that this column was an appendage to some immense temple, and that this temple could be no other than that of the Serapeum, or temple of Serapis, the Egyptian Pluto. Gradually to prepare his readers for the adoption of this opinion, or at least to render it probable, he digresses into an elaborate history of the introduction of the image of Serapis into Egypt from Sinope on the coast of the Euxine Sea, by the first Ptolemy, and of the magnificent temple which was erected in the suburb [Rhacotis] for its reception; and he offers good reasons to prove that this temple must have been near to the scite of the Pillar. After having adduced the evidence in support of his hypothesis, he observes that,

> 'The magnitude of this Column is such, that if it had originally stood unconnected with other buildings, it would never surely have escaped the notice of ancient historians: whereas if it constituted

part of a structure, like the Serapeum, it might well be included the general mention of an edifice so magnificent and stupendous. have already shewn, that it must have stood, at least, in the inity of that temple; and we are supported by the opinion of of the most judicious modern travellers, when we suppose, that h some building or other it was originally connected. Moreer its shaft is of the same kind of stone with those large pillars, remains of which Pococke saw lying scattered near it: and the press testimony of Arabic writers in a matter where they are cernly competent witnesses, is, that it stood at the northern angle a great building of uncertain antiquity, and that four hundred of se pillars were standing around it, with which it was so concted, that from them it received its popular appellation of *Amûd awâri*, or, "The Column of the Pillars." They add, that HERE s the Library which Amru destroyed by the command of the halif Omar. That Library, it has been already proved, was a rt of the ancient Serapeum; and therefore we conclude, upon the sitive testimony of history, that the Column stood within its prects.

'But if we should suppose for a moment that the Column was connected with the Serapeum, and that it was placed in its present uation after the conquest of Egypt by the Romans, our hypothesis ill be incumbered with great and manifest improbabilities. For the ork was evidently far beyond the reach of private exertions, and the mperors were little inclined to enrich a provincial city with so unpalleled an ornament. On the contrary, they are well known, from e time when they first obtained a quiet possession of the country, have frequently despoiled it of its treasures of this very kind. us Egypt frequently witnessed the exportation of her stately Obeks. This plunder, of which Augustus first set the example, was ntinued by his successors to the age of Constantine: nor is there e among them, whose history or character affords the slightest etensions for assigning to him the origin of this Column.

'We are told by those who have lately taken its dimensions, and o in modern ages have had the best opportunity and means of amination, that its principal member, the shaft, appears to be of ecian architecture. If then we exclude the Roman Emperors, ely this internal evidence will justify our conclusion, that the Æra the Column is to be found in some point of the Ptolemæan nasty; for, till after the conquest of Alexander, the arts of Greece re not introduced into Egypt. If we consider the second Morch of this race, his history, his disposition, his ability; the conction of the Column with a building confessedly founded by him, d the sameness of the character and materials; if we take each of ese circumstances distinctly, and weigh their accumulated force, ere will be little occasion to hesitate at restoring the honour of this gnificent monument to Ptolemy Philadelphus; an honour indeed, ich cannot justly be contested with him by any character in Greek Roman history, either in remote or later ages.'

Dr. W. laments that the mission of the National Institute to gypt has afforded him no assistance in this investigation, and that, excepting a description of the Pillar with a detail of its dimensions, nothing has either been performed or even attempted. Indeed the Doctor is by no means partial to the accounts of French travellers. He speaks of M. Sonnini as a writer whose 'authority he should assuredly never produce in opposition to evidence of approved respectability:' but he thinks it fair to bring Sonnini's testimony against another French writer, M. Savary; who, says Dr. White, has been accused by Sonnini of having published two volumes of travels in Upper Egypt *without ever having set foot in the country*. If this be true, however, it does not apply to Savary's preceding work, relative to *Lower* Egypt.

It may be considered as a strong objection to Dr. White's hypothesis, that the pillar stands on an eminence; and it would have been of importance to him to have had it ascertained whether this eminence is natural or artificial ground: but he endeavours to obviate this difficulty by an appeal to Strabo, Macrobius, and Clemens Alexandrinus, whose accounts of the situation of the Serapeum are examined; and it is conceived that the temple of Serapis was chiefly built on *an artificial height, joined to the natural eminence on which the Pillar stands, and raised precisely to the same level.*—It is added:

> 'Ruffinus informs us, that the ascent to the platform of the Temple was by a flight of at least a hundred steps. And the height of the hill, on which Pompey's Pillar stands, is stated by Abdollatif to be twenty-three cubits and a half; and by Maillet to be about twenty-five or thirty yards. Now, I think, these measurements approximate so nearly to those of the Roman writer, as fully to justify my hypothesis. Hence also we are enabled to reconcile the apparently different accounts of Ruffinus and Sozomen; of whom, the one says that the Temple was built on an artificial eminence; and the other seems to represent it as erected on a natural hill. The fact most probably was, that the *artificial* height was so well connected with the *natural*, as not to be distinguishable by vulgar spectators.'

We have undoubted evidence that it was the practice of the Egyptians to erect obelisks in the front of their temples; and could it be also proved that the Greeks raised magnificent columns before *their* sacred edifices, the argument of the Professor would be greatly strengthened: but this fact is not demonstrated. In our former mention of this work, however, (already cited,) we have intimated our general concurrence in the author's opinion; and even those who still doubt must acknowlege that he has formed a very ingenious conjecture, and supported it with much labour, ability, and learning.

Dr. White exhibits his hypothesis in a plate;—and he has given a delineation of the Pillar, from Dalton; a view of its situation with respect to Alexandria; sections of the base and pivot on which it stands; and a map of Alexandria, from D'Anville.

The 2d part of this work, we believe, has not yet appeared.

ART. XII. *An Inquiry into the Propriety of applying Wastes to the better Maintenance and Support of the Poor.* With Instances of the great Effects which have attended their Acquisition of Property, in keeping them from the Parish even in the present Scarcity. Being the Substance of some Notes taken in a Tour in the Year 1800. By Arthur Young, Esq. F.R.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1801.

WHILE Statesmen pompously display the prosperity of our country, and announce its flourishing circumstances, it may seem like disaffection to attempt to diminish the brilliancy of the prospect by raising the clouds of doubt, or by obtruding on the view any objects of a melancholy and unpromising nature; yet we should be greatly deficient in duty to the public, and forfeit the confidence which is placed in us, were we to accede entirely to those dazzling and delusive representations which are often exhibited as the real state of the kingdom. It matters not what is the amount of imports and exports, nor what is the magnitude of the revenue: a nation cannot be in a thoroughly sound state and flourishing condition if its poor are increasing; and if, owing to the errors of a bad system, they are gradually sinking into indolence, immorality, and (we may add) into political non-existence. We have often, in strong terms, delivered our opinion of the bad policy of destroying the independence of the labouring Poor, and of forcing them to abandon their humble cottages in order to be congregated in vast receptacles; where, if they do not forfeit the privileges, they soon lose the noble feelings of free Britons. We are happy to find many gentlemen concurring with us in sentiment, and equally awake to the sad consequences which must at last spring from perseverance in our present system.

His Majesty has now summoned a new Parliament, in which we hope that the case of the Poor and the operation of existing laws will be more seriously considered than in the last; and in which we trust it will be deemed a matter of more importance to take some effectual measure for stopping the progress of indigence and of work-house population, than to partition wastes and commons among the rich, by passing bills of inclosure. Most sincerely do we congratulate the public and the Poor, that a man of Mr. Young's observation and knowlege has directed his attention to this most important subject; and we ardently hope that the strong facts and arguments, which he has here exhibited, may make a suitable impression on our rulers, and on the whole body of country gentlemen: who are deeply interested in the welfare of the Poor, and in their proper maintenance and support. On the labouring classes, depends the productiveness of the soil: on the productiveness of the soil, depends the welfare of the state; and if these classes be unfairly treated or deprived of their dues in one way, the deficiency must necessarily be made up to them in another. If the stipulated wages be inadequate to their support, their wants must be supplied by a poor's rate; and if their cottages be taken from them, they must be sheltered in a work house. By such illiberal and impolitic conduct, an evil is created which the selfish and rapacious will feel, but of which they were not aware. By placing the working Poor on the footing of beggars, we generate in them the vices of beggars: by depriving them of their independance, and forcing them to accept, in the shape of alms, that to which they are intitled on the score of justice, (for the scripture says that *the labourer is worthy of his hire*,) we break their spirit, obliterate domestic attachment, and render them idle and dissolute. Some time must elapse, and much hardship will be borne, before a man, who feels the noble pride of supporting himself and family by his own labour, will brook the idea of taking the parish allowance: but let this pride once be destroyed by his being reduced to a parish pauper, and he seldom afterward finds any relish for exertion. Hence it is easier to fill a work-house than to empty it; and easier to convert the labouring poor into paupers, than to re-convert such paupers into labouring poor. How enormous are the poor-rates! yet what are their effects? Poverty seems to grow in proportion to their extension. The evil is now swoln to a magnitude sufficiently striking to give a peculiar interest to the discussion, which is pursued by Mr. Young in the pages before us. He examines into facts, and to these facts he subjoins his observations.

Finding, in the course of a tour made in the year 1800, several instances of the good effects of small cottages built for the Poor on commons and wastes, Mr. Young was induced to conclude that, 'of all the methods of improving waste lands, none are so important or so profitable as applying them to the support of the labouring Poor.' Part of the data from which he draws this conclusion we shall lay before our readers:

> 'CHATTRIS, *Cambridgeshire.*—About a hundred small cottages have been raised of late years on the common, so close to each other as to admit only a path around them; very few have gardens: many were built by the owners, who inhabit them, and did not cost

more than 10 or 12l. The proprietors have no relief from the parish.

'Blofield, *Norfolk*.—Thirty families have taken 39¾ acres of land from the common, and built very good and comfortable cottages; many must have cost 40, 50, and even 60l. They have 23 cows and 18 horses among them. Average of land 1⅓ acre, average of live stock 1⅓ a-head. Only 16 have cows, 8 neither cows nor horses, and 11 less than an acre of land each. 150 souls thus established have cost the parish (by a very inflamed account) 24l.; while 110 others, the rest of the poor, burthened it 150l. in the same half year. If 110 without land cost 150l. what would 260, the total poor, have cost, if none had land?

Answer - - -	£. 354
Instead of which it is - -	174
Saving to the parish, by 40 acres -	180

and 41 head of live stock in half a year.'

'Nazeing, *Essex*.—The common rights regulated by act of Parliament. The poor were remarkably idle and dissolute; but Mr. Palmer offering to advance money for every poor man who could not afford to buy live stock, many accepted it, and every man of them repaid him in two years, some sooner. They are converted by this property to as sober and regular a people as they were before licentious.

'Farnham, *Surrey*.—Above 100 families have built cottages on the common. I examined 47 of them, who possess about 20 acres, besides some gardens: 24 of them have 103 children at home, the other families I have not noted. These (147 persons in all) are supported with no other allowance from the parish than 4l. 8s. 1½d. per week, or 7d. per head per week: yet there are only 4 cows among them. They would readily give up the parish for a cow, and many would agree to repay the cost by instalments. Every 5 persons in the work-house cost 64l. 10s. 10d. per annum; consequently, for one year's expence of a family they might establish two on the common free of expence ever after.

'Lincolnshire, &c.—In 48 parishes, 753 labourers and their families, renting land sufficient for one or two cows, have received NOTHING from their parishes throughout the late and present carcities.'

After having stated these and other facts, Mr. Young suboins the following truly judicious observations:

'It is sufficiently evident from all these cases that the great engine wherewith the poor may be governed and provided for the most easily nd the most cheaply, is property: but by our poor laws the effect undesignedly) upon the poor has been that rather of impoverishment than acquisition, and of promoting idleness rather than industry, y an impolitic and expensive supply from hand to mouth. The onsequences of this conduct have matured themselves into such a mass of poor rates as to be ruinous to many little housekeepers, while the poor, deprived of all spirit and ambition, have sunk into such dependance on the parish, that their poverty has kept pace with the errors of the system; and has arrived at such a pitch, that if some effective cure be not devised, very mischievous consequences may be expected. Rates, within two or three years, have doubled; and past experience tells us, that although they rise by reason of the high price of corn, they do not proportionably sink with a low price. If every scarcity be thus to advance them, they will, in no long period, absorb the rents of the kingdom—not to give ease and comfort to the lower classes, but to leave them, if possible, in a worse situation.

'The evil being of such a magnitude, it well deserves the consideration of the Legislature, whether a totally contrary system, proved by so many remarkable cases to be capable of producing great effects, ought not to be adopted; and the more especially as in the main point it agrees with the proposition made by Mr. Pitt some years ago to the House of Commons.

'Many authors have remarked with surprize the great change which has taken place in the spirit of the lower classes of the people within the last twenty years. There was formerly found an unconquerable aversion to depend on the parish, insomuch that many would struggle through life with large families, never applying for relief. *That spirit is annihilated:* applications of late have been as numerous as the poor; and one great misfortune attending the change is, that every sort of industry flags when once the parochial dependance takes place: it then becomes a struggle between the pauper and the parish, the one to do as little and to receive as much as possible, and the other to pay by no rule but the summons and order of the justice. The evils resulting are beyond all calculation; for the motives to industry and frugality are cut up by the roots when every poor man knows that if he do not feed himself, the parish must do it for him; and that he has not the most distant hope of ever attaining independancy, let him be as industrious and frugal as he may. To acquire land enough to build a cottage on is a hopeless aim in 99 parishes out of 100.

'But the cases here detailed prove clearly, that wherever there is such a hope, it operates beyond all the powers of calculation. How these men were able to effect their object surpasses inquiry: that they saved money with this view is palpable, because in most of the cases the erections have been the work of regular carpenters and masons, who could not have been employed without a considerable part of the expence being provided for; and this accordingly I found the case, for where mortgages had taken place, it was only for a part of the expence, in many instances for only a small part, and in some, not a few, without any such assistance at all.

'And here it is deserving of great attention, that during the very period in which the poor have in general become wholly dependant, and burthened their parishes to an enormous amount, these cases of saving frugality and industry have occurred in a few places with no other motive or instigation but the prospect of becoming proprietors of their own cottages. What a powerful motive has this proved, to render them such striking exceptions to a whole kingdom!'

The effect of taking from the labouring Poor all hopes of property, and of independence, is thus depicted *to the life:*

'Go to an alehouse kitchen of an old enclosed country, and there you will see the origin of poverty and poor rates. For whom are they to be sober? For whom are they to save? (Such are their questions.) For the parish? If I am diligent, shall I have leave to build a cottage? If I am sober, shall I have land for a cow? If I am frugal, shall I have half an acre of potatoes? You offer no motives; you have nothing but a parish officer and a workhouse!—Bring me another pot—

'It is true that wastes are not every where to be found, but the principles of property are universal; and the more they are encouraged amongst the poor, the less burthensome will they be found. He who cannot possess an acre may be the owner of a cow; and the man will love his country the better even for a pig.'

Mr. Young has not, nor have we, any design generally to condemn inclosing: but we wish to draw the attention of the public to the sad effects which inclosure bills for the most part have had on the Poor, in order that the evils which they have occasioned, in many parishes, may be obviated as much as possible and carefully avoided in future.

From a combination of the facts stated by Mr. Young, he deduces the following corollaries:

'I. That nothing tends so strongly to give the poor industrious and frugal habits as the prospect of acquiring, or the hope of preserving land.

'II. That wherever they are possessed of it, they are either kept entirely from the parish, or supported at a very small comparative expence.

'III. That parishes are at as great an expence to keep them in a state of distress as would fix them in a comfortable situation.

'IV. That enclosures as hitherto conducted have no such effect.'

With great deference to the wisdom of Parliament, the author suggests hints on which a new system respecting the Poor may be constructed, and replies to the several objections which have been offered to his plan, or rather to the outlines of a plan. Deeply persuaded of the importance of the subject, and of the right views of it which he has given, we should have great pleasure in extending our extracts: but the limitation of our pages and the multifarious nature of our duty restrain our pen in the present instance. Assured, however, with him, that it is impossible for a country to continue in such a line of conduct, respecting the Poor, as we see at present adopted in Great Britain; and convinced that the idea which he has suggested can furnish the only practicable method of preventing the most serious evils; we cannot turn our attention to other publications, without first strongly recommending this pamphlet to general discussion: earnestly hoping that some public-spirited member of Parliament may speedily take up the subject, and be aided in maturing the thoughts of Mr. Young into such a system as, allowing for the great variety of circumstances, may be practically applied throughout most if not all of the parishes in the kingdom.

Art. XIII. *Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris*, in the Month of August, 1802; by which any Person intending to take such a Journey may form an accurate Idea of the Expence that would attend it, and the Amusement he would probably receive. Together with Thirteen Views from Nature, illustrative of French Scenery; acquatinted by J. Hill, from Drawings by the Author. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

It is generally acknowleged that travelling affords a strong stimulus to writing, since there is a prevalent wish to impart to others the impressions which new scenes have excited: but the tourist often forgets to consider how far he possesses the qualifications requisite for the office thus assumed. The author of the hasty sketch before us states his own conviction of the frequency of this case, and judiciously protects himself from any accusations on this ground by explaining his motives with candour, and describing his work with modesty:

> 'In the early part of this summer, (he says,) as it was my wish to visit Paris, and not being in the way of meeting those who had, since the Peace, made such an excursion, I inquired in vain for some account of the present state of France, by which I might form some estimate both of the expence that would be incurred, and the probability of proportionate entertainment. I wished to meet with some account of the manner of travelling, of the tranquillity of the country, so far as it related to the security of strangers, and also of the general condition of society in Paris. But this being no where to be found untinctured with politics, or unmixed with the relative sensations that follow the bare mention of France at present, it occurred to me that a journal of the daily transactions, and a plain statement of the occurrences, during a short tour, would answer the inquiries of any future persons wishing to make a similar excursion.
>
> 'Such is my motive for venturing to publish this short Journal. If it has no pretensions to merit from the scanty information it contains, criticism will be disarmed by the consideration that general utility is its only aim, and that the efforts I have made are to give a faithful portrait of things as they appeared.'

As far as the expence and gratification of the author and his party are concerned, his information is no doubt correct; and his account of the inconvenience which they suffered, from the ve heat in the month of August, should operate as a warning against visiting Paris at that season. Indeed, winter is equally objectionable for a tour of this kind, because the common mode of warming rooms in France does not afford an Englishman his accustomed comfort. The spring is the proper time.—The general result of the journey was that the author 'found much to wonder at, much to censure, and something to admire.' The exorbitant charges and impositions of the French are fully exposed; and, admitting them to be always such as he describes, our curiosity must vanquish our œconomy before we can resolve on a trip to Paris.

The party, whose expences and amusements are detailed in this Journal, consisted of two gentlemen and three ladies, with a man and woman servant and a courier. They travelled in a *barouche* and a coach; the former containing the gentlemen and ladies, the latter their servants and baggage. On the 5th of August they sailed from Dover for Calais, and on the 26th of the same month they embarked at Calais on their return to England. We are not acquainted with the whole expence of this excursion: but the journey from Calais to Paris, including ten horses and two English carriages, and living on the road comfortably but not extravagantly, is stated to have cost 1278 livres (about 50 guineas). At Paris, they paid 10 livres per week for their lodgings, forming (says the author) 'a suite of apartments all on one floor, consisting of an anti-chamber, a dining and withdrawing-room, opening into bed-rooms and dressing-rooms, with a very good water-closet: when we came into them they appeared very elegantly furnished, but in a few hours an hundred elegancies were added, apparently new, from upholders' hands, who I imagine furnish the hotels upon receiving a certain sum for the use of their goods.' For a hired carriage and horses, they were charged 25 guineas per month; and for their *lacquey de place* 4 livres (3s. 4d.) per day, he providing for himself. To the *traiteur*, they agreed to pay 20 louis per week for serving the table for five persons and two servants, including two bottles of wine (we suppose daily): but they afterward found this a bad mode of proceeding, and that it was preferable to order dinner each day by the bill of fare, with the prices annexed.

The author thus states the ideas which first struck him on entering France:

> 'The impression which the first coming into France made on me, was similar to what I have heard from many others, that they are a century behind us in the common conveniencies of life, carriages, &c.; but their great quickness and versatility of talent is visible in every thing: the common people also seem to be much better informed than ours; and since the revolution, have an air of independence about them, which they did not possess before. I speak of these things merely as first impressions, and as it is probable we may meet with others less favourable, it is but fair to state these.'

All persons carrying over an English post-chaise are advised to have a pair of shafts put to it instead of a pole; by which means it may be drawn with three horses instead of four. It is rather recommended, however, not to take over any English carriages, but to hire those of the French, which are better adapted to the clumsy harness of the horses, and the occasional roughness of the roads.

In the route to Paris, and in the survey of that city, many objects which merit notice are omitted. No information is given respecting the process and expences at the Custom-house at Dover; nor is any mention made of the fine cathedral at Amiens. At p. 27. the Marshall Richelieu is mistaken for the Cardinal; and at p. 69. we read of *Les Gobelins* and *la Tapisserie*, instead of the tapestry of the Gobelins. At p. 73. the *Théâtre François* is mis-stated to be situated in the *Palais Royal.* It is in the *Rue de la loi*, near that *ci-devant Palais.*

The following is the author's sketch of Bonaparte's person:

'He is, as every one has heard, a little man, but with an intelligent spirited countenance, and an eye that speaks an uncommon mind; he wears his lank hair out of powder, very short, and was dressed in a blue coat most richly embroidered. I looked at him with much curiosity, as a man whom concurring circumstances, together with his own uncommon talents, have raised from a state of insignificance to the possession of the largest share of power of any individual in the civilized world; and I think (as far as comparative reflection would enable me to judge at that time) he is somewhat like his gallant antagonist Sir Sydney Smith, at least more so than to any other person I can recollect: the prints we have of him here are not very like him, but there is a bust of him, from which there are casts now very common in England, which may be considered as a true representation.'

We extract a few detached remarks from those parts which relate to Paris:

'We met the ladies at dinner laden with their purchases, amongst which was an English patent lace veil, which they had bought for a real French one, but fortunately had not paid for it; but I mention this as highly *creditable* to the English manufactories, as also to guard my fair countrywomen against similar imposition, as I understand there is a great quantity of English lace passed off in that manner.'—

'*Aug.* 13.—I found myself very unwell this morning with a severe attack in the bowels, which I attributed, at first, to the eating fruit and drinking a kind of wine to which I was unaccustomed; however, from the complaint continuing so long upon me as it did, I am inclined to believe, what I have since heard of the water in Paris to be true: in which there is said to be a peculiar quality which always disagrees with strangers, unless they have it boiled, and then cooled before they drink it.'—

‘We clambered up to the top of *Notre Dame*, for the purpose of viewing Paris, which, from this point of view, did not strike me as being near so large as London.

‘Paris appears to have been designed for an aristocratical city; the houses have no medium, and the beauty of it consists chiefly in the magnificence of the public buildings and palaces; whilst the excellence of London lies more in its general neatness and regularity.’—

‘In the course of our walk we looked in at a church, where the scene was very curious, as the people were so variously occupied; in the middle were some few praying, and singing most lamentably out of tune; many were forming arrangements for the evening, whilst others were walking round, as we were, and surveying the old pictures. At the door sat an old crooked woman, with a brush dipped in holy water, with which she sprinkled those who liked it as they passed.’

The indelicacy of attire among the ladies is frequently mentioned; yet an observance of decorum among the men is thus stated, in the record of a very good institution:

‘I was much amused with the swimming academy, which seems to be an useful institution; the laws for the observance of decency are fixed up, and attended to; every one is obliged to wear either short breeches or a large wrapper round the waist, and I am sure I saw an hundred persons learning to swim in different ways; they are taken great pains with, and acquire the art in a very short space of time.’

Versailles and the country in its vicinity are hastily explored; and we have this account of the present state of the little Trianon:

‘It is a small Italian villa, built by the *last* Queen for her own residence, and very much frequented by her. Here she spent much time away from the king, and, if report be not a liar, this retirement was not the court of Diana.

‘The gardens are delightful, much in the English style; and the drawing given here describes some detached buildings, constructed in imitation of English cottages, on the edge of a small lake, formerly most elegantly furnished for the accommodation of such of her own family and friends as visited her in this retirement.

‘The house itself is now occupied by a *traiteur*, and we partook of our dinner in a small room that was the Queen’s *boudoir*, immediately adjoining her bed-room. It is now entirely dismantled of its former splendid furniture, and bears nothing of the palace about it but the name; at the same time that it is extremely pretty.’

French extortion is a prevalent subject in these pages; and to the very last, the people contrived to keep alive the author’s irritation. On the return of the party, the tire of one of the coach wheels separated from the wood, and it was necessary to repair it by fixing on six iron bands, ‘for which an English smith would have thought himself well paid by a crown: but the Frenchman charged *sixty livres!*’

'We at first really thought he was in jest, but found that he was in good earnest, and would not take one penny less. We appealed to the master of the poste, and were willing to abide by his decision, which he very reluctantly gave, which was "that thirty livres was enough." This being refused, we enquired for a magistrate, and were informed that there was a mayor resident in the town; to him then we went, and were civilly received. We stated the case, and requested his interference that he would look at the work, and put some value on it, by which we would abide. This he declined, but said, "Gentlemen, I know the English are very much imposed upon, and I do not think you have any occasion to give him more than thirty livres, but if he refuses I cannot enforce it!" So we returned to our inn *re infectâ*, and were ultimately obliged to pay the whole *sixty livres*, as the man stood ready to knock off his bands (which would have quite prevented our moving), in case we did not choose to pay for them, and every individual who saw the transaction took the side of the smith, and was decidedly against us.'

We suspect that French travellers would retort the charge of extortion on strangers.

The author thus apologizes for the deficiencies in his account of Paris:

'I am fully aware that my account of Paris is as inadequate to the full description of it, as the time of our residence in it was to the performance of more than we did; but we were by this time so thoroughly satiated, and so much disgusted with the want of good manners and of every thing that makes life desirable, that we did not wish to stay another hour. I only covenanted to relate what I had seen, and if that is deemed little, yet that little may be the more depended on, as I have written nothing on report.'

We will not undertake to say how far this journal will form an adequate guide in a Parisian expedition: but it will certainly afford both information and amusement to those who design to make such a tour and to those who stay at home. The plates form an acceptable addition to the volume: but we must remark that neither its literary nor its typographical composition can be praised as correct.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1802.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *The Order and Method of instructing Children*, with Strictures on the modern System of Education. By George Crabb. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE object of this work is 'to shew how the powers of the infant mind may be called into action, and its energies unfolded;' and this operation the author judiciously points out from the nature of

asso-

iation, perception, judgment, &c. These remarks are afterward
applied to logic and language, grammar, the study of history,
-Although we find much to approve in this volume, yet it con-
some sentiments and assertions, to which we cannot readily sub-
:. That 'the present age can boast of neither wisdom *or* (nor)
ng' is, we conceive, by far too severe a censure; although we
: that, in many instances, our modern youth are deficient in *solid*
nplishments:—that (page 156) 'human reason and revelation
ever been *enemies*' is a strange mis-statement of the matter; the
:y has subsisted rather between human reason and human de-
ons from Revelation;—and that 'poetry seldom contains any
moral,' and that the Iliad, Æneid, and Paradise Lost, (p. 179.)
out a *gingle* of *words*, or a *spun-out general idea*,' are discoveries which
d add new ideas to our stock, if we could receive them.

15. *The Duty of Children to their Parents*, stated and enforced.
By R. Wright. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Vidler, &c.
is pamphlet contains some good instructions on the branch of
of which it treats, and points out the nature and extent of the
ation, the limitations which bound it, and the principles on which
ts.

16. *Visits to the Menagerie, and the Botanical Garden at Paris*;
ntaining a View of Natural History for the Instruction of
ung Persons. From the French of L. F. Jauffret. Small
mo. 2 Vols. 4s. Half bound. R. Phillips.
ese two little volumes deserve commendation for the entertaining
er in which they treat of Natural History; and young persons
eap a variety of useful information from the perusal of them.

17. *The Little Hermitage*, with other Tales. Small 12mo,
2s. Half bound. R. Phillips.
bjects of natural history are here usefully intermixed with the
and serve to invite young persons to consider the causes of the
s which they observe.

18. *The Birth-Day*, or Moral Dialogues and Stories, &c. By
Eliz. Somerville. Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Crosby.
ildren are not great epicures in literature; if they were, we
that they would consider this little dish as but a tasteless
rau.

19. *The New Children in the Wood*; or the Welsh Cottagers;
Tale. By Eliz. Somerville. Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Crosby.
though this is a more interesting performance than that of which
ve just spoken, yet it conveys but little instruction, and the
age is not sufficiently plain and simple.

20. *Mabel Woodbine, and her Sister Lydia*; a Tale. By Eliz.
Somerville. Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Crosby.
is publication does not boast much higher merit than the pre-
g. The writer's moral lessons, however, are good.

AGRICUL-

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 21. *Some Cursory Observations on the Conversion of Pasture-Land into Tillage,* and, after a certain Course of Crops, re-laying the same into Pasture; in an Address to the Right Hon. Lord Carrington, President of the National Board of Agriculture; and from which the Author received an honorary Reward. To which is added A Copy of a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. the Chancellor of the Exchequer, on the then proposed Measure of permitting Starch manufactured from Potatoes to be exempted from the Revenue Duties; with occasional Remarks. Also some interesting Hints on the Utility of applying the Potatoe as Food for Sheep, particularly at the present Juncture, from practical Observations. By Nehemiah Bartley, Secretary to the Bath Agricultural Society, and an Honorary Member. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1802.

Though the title-page of this pamphlet is very ample, Mr. Bartley has avoided prolixity in treating the subject on which he labours to be useful; and on this account we recommend him as an example to agricultural writers: who should reflect that farmers, not being in general partial to reading, will be best pleased with having all hints addressed to them comprized in few pages. In the first paper, Mr. B. recommends a judicious classification of soils for meadow, pasture, tillage, and sheep-walk, in order that every spot may be cultivated to the best advantage; and he reprobates the rule of *once a pasture always a pasture.* In preparing the meadow for a corn crop, he advises the use of the spade instead of the plough, and the reason which he assigns for this practice is convincing, viz. that 'the land thus converted in one hour may be planted the next with the utmost propriety:' but he has surely under-rated the expence. In re-laying the same into pasture, he does not approve the common practice of sowing grass seed with spring corn. The sowing of lucerne is advised for its superior productiveness: but this advantage will not be evident in the first year.

To the Potatoe, Mr. B. is extremely partial; and indeed all the farinaceous tribe sink into insignificance before it in his estimation. He calculates that *two* tons of starch on an average may be obtained from an acre of potatoes, whereas only 12 cwt. 3 q. 16 lb. can be produced from an acre of wheat; whence he suggests to the Prime Minister, the propriety of employing potatoes only in the manufacture of starch. He does not, however, advert to the qualities of the two starches, but seems to regard the substance obtained from the root as of precisely the same nature with the farina of corn; in which he may be deceived.

With repect to feeding Sheep with potatoes, the trial is worth making; and Mr. B.'s hints therefore should not be disregarded. Though these animals do not like this food at first, they afterward devour it with eagerness, will eat it out of the shepherd's hand, and will grow fat on it. At least, so says the intelligent Bath Secretary.

Art. 22. *A Treatise on the Culture of Potatoes.* Shewing the best Means of obtaining productive Crops. A Matter of National Importance. By a Practical Farmer. 12mo. 1s. Richardson.

This writer is not one of our agricultural spin-texts: for the advice which he offers on the Culture of Potatoes is given with brevity. His pamphlet is of a small size, and contains only 48 pages; yet it is divided into 16 chapters, intitled—On the Culture of Potatoes—Seed—Roots saved from Seed—Early Crop—To have a productive early Crop—Manure—Preparing Land, if before in Grass—Planting Potatoes—Late Crop—Preserving a general Crop during Winter—For culinary Use—Uses of small Potatoes—Horses—Bullocks—Pigs—To get Pork at a cheap rate. Here is *multum in parvo*, r plenty of advice for a shilling!

For a productive early crop, the planting of the *crown eye* is recommended; and, in order to obtain cheap pork, feeding with turnips nd potatoes. As the author says that he does not write for us, why hould we obtrude any remark on him?

NOVELS.

Art. 23. *The White Knight*, or the Monastery of Morne, a Romance. By Theodore Melville, Esq. 12mo. 3 Vols. sewed. Crosby and Co. 1802.

Satiated as we are with ghosts and spectres, which have been raised without number to decorate the visionary castles of modern romance, yet we are willing to allow some share of merit to the present perormance. It contains scenes that are interesting, and others which are terrific. When the White Knight, clad in complete armour, stalks into the hall of the castle, our hair, like that of Hamlet, stands on end, and we cry out with him, "Angels and Ministers of Grace, defend us!"—The Robbers in the cave afford another cene of terror, for they are of a more murderous disposition than hose in Gil Blas: but happily, Allan escapes their search, though eated for a time in a hollow of their cavern.—The lovers of romance may guess, from these hints, what they have to expect in this publiation. We only add that the salutary lesson, intended to be coneyed in this work, is the love of virtue and the dread of guilt.

Art. 24. *Letitia; or, the Castle without a Spectre.* By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

Mrs. Hunter has shewn both talents and judgment in this perormance: but the scenes, especially in the first volume, are so rapidly hifted, and the attention is so much distracted with stage bustle, that he story seems to drag. In the second volume, the interest is more kept up: but the multiplicity of characters presented to our acquaintance, as we proceed, scarcely allows us time for proper discrimination, and the mind with difficulty retains the thread of the plot. On the whole, the novel has a good tendency in endeavouring to ommunicate that knowlege of the world, without which it is impossible to have the true enjoyment of it.

Art. 25. *The Letters of a Solitary Wanderer:* containing Narratives of various Descriptions. By Charlotte Smith. Vols. IV. and V. 12mo. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

We announced the first three volumes of this work in our 35th Vol. N. S. p. 332. and we need only, on the present occasion, inform our readers of the appearance of these new tales; from which, they scarcely need to be told, they will derive an addition to that entertainment which the writings of Mrs. Smith always afford.

MEDICAL, CHEMICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *A Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on Chemistry,* delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain. By Humphry Davy, Professor of Chemistry. 8vo. pp. 91. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

In the advertisement prefixed to this work, Mr. Davy observes that 'it is generally admitted that the best method of teaching the science is to begin with simple facts, and gradually to proceed from them to the more complicated phenomena.

'In the following pages, which contain the outlines of a course of lectures on chemistry, an attempt has been made to employ such a method. Hence the abstruse doctrines concerning the imponderable fluids have been separated from the history of simple chemical action; and the applications of the science from the science itself.

'The classification of substances adopted is founded rather upon facts than analogies; and in consequence, certain bodies have been placed amongst the simple principles, which, from their resemblance to other bodies of known composition, have been generally arranged in the class of compounds.'

This is an imperfection, as the author with great candour admits: but on the principles assumed it could not be avoided. He has therefore formed his Syllabus into three parts; 1st, on the chemistry of ponderable, and 2dly, on that of imponderable substances; and 3dly, on the chemistry of the Arts.—The whole is well digested, and does credit to the ingenious writer.

Art. 27. *A Discourse introductory to a Course of Lectures on Chemistry,* delivered at the Royal Institution, 21st of January 1802. By Humphry Davy, Prof. of Chemistry. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

In this elegant and comprehensive discourse, the author exposes to our view the immense extent of chemical effects. He remarks that chemistry has for its objects all the substances found on our globe; and that an acquaintance with the fundamental and general chemical principles can alone enable us accurately to explain the nature of the phænomena of combustion, of solution in water, of the agencies of fire, of the production of rain, hail, snow, and the conversion of dead into living matter by vegetable organs.

He then proceeds to shew how much every other branch of science is promoted by chemistry; and that Mechanical Philosophy, Natural History in its various divisions, Medicine, Physiology, Agriculture, the Working of Metals, Bleaching, Dyeing, Tanning, the Making of Glass and Porcelain, all are immediately or to a certain extent dependent on chemistry. It is even difficult to examine any of our common operations or labours, without finding them more or less connected with this science.

'Man, (says Mr. Davy) by means of chemical knowlege, is to a certain degree ruler of the elements that surround him; and he is capable of using not only common matter according to his will and inclinations, but likewise of subjecting to his purposes the ethereal principles of heat and light. By his inventions they are elicited from the atmosphere; and under his control they become, according to circumstances, instruments of comfort and enjoyment, or of terror and destruction.

'To be able indeed to form an accurate estimate of the effects of chemical philosophy, and the arts and sciences connected with it, upon the human mind, we ought to examine the history of society, to trace the progress of improvement, or more immediately to compare the uncultivated savage with the being of science and civilization.

'Man, in what is called a state of nature, is a creature of almost pure sensation. Called into activity only by positive wants, his life is passed either in satisfying the cravings of the common appetites, or in apathy, or in slumber. Living only in moments, he calculates but little on futurity. He has no vivid feelings of hope, or thoughts of permanent and powerful action. And, unable to discover causes, he is either harrassed by superstitious dreams, or quietly and passively submitted to the mercy of nature and the elements. How different is man informed through the beneficence of the Deity, by science, and the arts! Knowing his wants, and being able to provide for them, he is capable of anticipating future enjoyments, and of connecting hope with an infinite variety of ideas. He is in some measure independent of chance or accident for his pleasures. Science has given to him an acquaintance with the different relations of the parts of the external world; and more than that, it has bestowed upon him powers which may be almost called creative; which have enabled him to modify and change the beings surrounding him, and by his experiments to interrogate nature with power, not simply as a scholar, passive and seeking only to understand her operations, but rather as a master, active with his own instruments.'

The author concludes his discourse with some reflections on the beneficial effects which the study of chemistry produces on society in general, as well as on the minds of individuals in particular.

Art. 28. *An Account of some Experiments on the Origin of the Cow-pox.* By John G. Loy, M.D. 4to. pp. 29. 2s. G. Phillips. 1801.

The hypothesis of Dr. Jenner on the *origin* of the cow-pox has hitherto obtained little credit among medical men, on account of its not having been confirmed by the experiments instituted to examine its validity. The author of the interesting publication before us, however, was induced to repeat those experiments, from being informed that a surgeon of his acquaintance had met with two cases of vesicular eruptions on the hands of farriers, who had been employed in dressing the heels of horses affected with grease; and that, by inoculation from one of these vesicles, a regular cow-pox pustule was produced on the arm of a child. His first experiments were made with matter from one of the cases abovementioned, which he not only found to produce a regular cow-pox pustule on the arm of a child, but to be capable, by inoculation, of generating the disease on the udder of a cow, from which it could be transferred to the human subject.

Dr. Loy afterward inserted, in the teat of a cow, some thin limpid matter from a sore in the heels of a horse; and he found that a vesicle of a purple tinge was produced by it, from which a child had a regular vaccine pustule, and was rendered insusceptible of the small-pox. In order still farther to vary the experiments, he inoculated a child in the arm with the matter of grease from the same horse, and found that the usual phænomena of the vaccine disease took place; that the child was rendered secure from small-pox influence; and that other children inoculated from it had the cow-pox in the usual way.

The author informs us that in his first trials he failed, but that he at length succeeded with matter in a more limpid state, which he took from the heels of a horse, at about the fourteenth day of the disease, and a week from the first appearance of the discharge. The horse, too, as well as those abovementioned which infected the farriers, had considerable indisposition previously to the appearance of the disease in his heels, and had also eruptions over the greatest part of the body. From the latter circumstance, the author is induced to conclude that two species of grease exist; one in which there is a constitutional, the other in which there is only a local affection; and that it is the former alone which is capable of producing cow-pox.

Art. 29. *References to the Bones*, for the Use of Anatomical Schools. By Benj. B. Simone, M. D. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

These references, we are informed by the author, were composed for the use of an anatomical school, which it is his intention to institute; and as a syllabus to that department of a course of lectures which includes the bones. His plan for the study of this part of anatomy is to select a set of the best marked bones, to annex to the processes, foramina, &c. the numbers prefixed to their respective references, and to deliver them thus labelled to the student.—The descriptions are perspicuous, and the method recommended promises to be useful.

Art. 30. *The Family Physician*; or Domestic Medical Friend, &c. &c. &c. By Alexander Thomson, M. D. 12mo. pp. 576. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1801.

The author of this system of medical instruction seems determined that, if his work should not succeed with the public, it shall not at least be from the want of his own good opinion and recommendation; for he observes of it in his preface, 'that if extensive research, important observation, and practical utility, can stamp an incontestible value on a medical production, there is reason to think that the present treatise has, more than any work of the kind, either foreign or domestic, such good pretensions to the approbation and favour of the public as cannot but insure its success.' We own ourselves at a loss to discover those traits of excellence which, in the estimation of the author, must make his work a decided favourite; and we have been unable to perceive that he has done more than might be performed by a mere compiler, superficially acquainted only with the principles and practice of the profession which he would teach. We entertain considerable doubts on the utility of a system of domestic medicine, which the volume before us has not tended to remove.

Art. 31. *A Fourth Dissertation on Fever.* Containing the History of, and Remedies to be employed in irregular intermitting Fever. By George Fordyce, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1802.

Since we published our criticisms on the former parts of this work, the respectable author has been removed from the theatre of his labours. Those who have averted death from multitudes cannot finally defend themselves from his power;

" *Nec prosunt domino quæ prosunt omnibus artes.*" OVID.

The rigour of criticism is disarmed at the view of a posthumous publication; and we shall therefore suppress several observations which might have been formerly deemed necessary. We shall only say that the peculiar style which characterised the preceding dissertations is continued in this; and that, in order to completely understand the author's meaning, a student ought to possess a thorough knowlege of the art of reading, as well as of diseases.

Art. 32. *Experiments and Observations on the Medicinal Waters of Hampstead and Kilburn.* By John Bliss, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of London. 8vo. 2s. R. Phillips. 1802.

From the analysis given in this pamphlet, which seems to have been executed with considerable care, it appears that the Hampstead water is a carbonated chalybeate, containing, in every wine gallon, 1½ grain of oxyd of iron, and 10.1 cubic inches of carbonic acid gas, together with some small portions of muriate of magnesia, sulphate of lime, muriate of soda, and silex.

The Kilburn water contains, in every pint, about one drachm and four grains of crystallized purging salts, and nearly nine drachms and a half in bulk of carbonic acid gas.

Art. 33. *The Anatomy of the Human Body.* Vol. III. Containing the Nervous System, with Plates. Part 1st. The Anatomy of the Brain and Description of the Course of the Nerves. Part 2d. The Anatomy of the Eye and Ear. By Charles Bell, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 210. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

The first part only of the present volume has yet appeared. It is the continuation of a system of anatomy which was begun, and of which the first two volumes were published, some time ago, by Mr. John Bell, the brother of the author *. We consider this as a very favourable specimen of Mr. C. Bell's talents; and we are happy in finding that it is free from the personality and sarcasm, which we had occasion to reprehend in the former volumes of this work. The descriptions are accurate and perspicuous, and are occasionally relieved by some judicious observations on the most interesting subjects of physiological discussion, connected with the brain and nerves. A few small but correct and well executed plates are added, in illustration of several parts of the Anatomy of the Encephalon.

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* See M. R. N. S. 14th vol. p. 334. and 24th vol. p. 226.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 34. *A Continuation of an Account of Indian Serpents;* containing Descriptions and Figures, from Specimens and Drawings, transmitted from various Parts of India to the Honourable the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and published by their Order, under the Superintendance of Patrick Russell, M.D. F.R.S. Imperial Folio. 1l. 7s. Boards. Nicol. 1801.

The commencement of this very laudable and magnificent publication was announced to our readers in M. R. Vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 72. and we have much pleasure not only in recording the present continuation of it, but in being enabled to add that there is a probability of our receiving still farther information on this interesting and 'too long neglected branch of Indian Natural History.'

The volume (or Fasciculus) before us contains five of the *Coluber* genus and five of the *Anguis*, with descriptions and observations.

Art. 35. *Recensio Plantarum huc usque in repositorio Botanicorum depictarum.* A Review of the Plants hitherto figured in the Botanist's Repository; with a Translation of the essential and specific Characters. *Index Duplex.* 4to. 4s. White. 1801.

A convenient and systematic catalogue, in Latin and English, of the collection to which it refers. To the generic and specific names are annexed the botanical characters, from the most respectable authorities; particularly from Willdenow, Aiton, Thunberg, and Jacquin. The editor has occasionally added some short but useful remarks, and adapted his index at once to the catalogue and the repository.

Art. 36. *The Natural History of Quadrupeds;* including all the Linnæan Class of Mammalia: to which is prefixed, a General View of Nature. For the Instruction of Young Persons. 12mo. 2 Vols. 13s. Boards. Johnson. 1801.

Most young persons, we presume, would cheerfully dispense with a preparatory apparatus consisting of an advertisement, preface, introduction, and upwards of a hundred pages of prefixed views; exhibiting, in three different places, the Linnéan sketch of the empire of nature, and containing positions which, if not erroneous, are at least open to controversy. Children have no decided predilection for metaphysics; nor will parents become much wiser by being told that

'The life of this perpetually mobile, hydraulic, animal machine was primarily communicated to the medullary substance, and afterwards continued and propagated with it; it is supported by an ethereal electric flame of inextinguishable fire, which is supplied by respiration;

spiration; in this electric fire, resides the incomprehensible power by which the will excites voluntary motion.'

Again,

'The cameræ, or seats of the faculties within the animal machine are five;—

'1st. The most important of all, the animal medullary, electrico-motive magazine of the living, secretly acting, willing, thinking, reasoning divine faculty; which, by electric threads, diffuses itself through the organized bulb, and influences, and directs the whole.

'2dly. And secondary in consequence, the vital pneumatic organs the Lungs, which inhale the electrical vital principle from the air, to support the animal flame.

'3dly. The natural hydraulic machine, the vascular system, that from the perpetually moving heart, reciprocally receives and propels through the whole body the fluids, which are occasionally increased or diminished in quantity, that there may be neither deficiency nor redundance.

4thly. The alimentary digestive organs, the abdominal viscera, that prepare within the intestinal canal juices proper for the lacteal vessels, which are afterwards circulated through the whole vital system.'

5thly.—Nay, nay, my dear boys and girls, you will know the fifth camera soon enough.

At page 112 & seq. vol. i. some wild relations are introduced, with the saving clause of *not vouching for their truth*. An Irish youth, for example, is said to have been found with the habits of an *ox*: we rather suspect, a *bull*.—Among the list of monsters, are classed *the insect-shaped ladies, who deform their figures and destroy their constitutions by tight lacing*, and who are gravely said to *inhabit Europe*.

A second compiler has fortunately taken the pen at p. 157, and executed his task with judgment and neatness; availing himself not a little of the previous labours of Dr. Shaw, as is duly acknowleged in the advertisement.

We select a few lines for the *amusement* of our readers.

'SIMIA BEELZEBUB.—PREACHER MONKEY, or OUARINE.

'This species is of a black colour and bearded. It inhabits the woods of Brasil and Guiana, which it makes to resound with its horrid howlings. The circumstance from which it derives its name is very singular. One of them sometimes mounts a higher branch, while the others seat themselves beneath. The first then begins in a very loud and sharp cry, as if he was haranguing the rest, who remain silent, till he gives a signal with his hand, upon which the whole assembly joins in chorus. They are silent again at another signal, when he proceeds in his oration, till he thinks fit to call again for their united voices. This very remarkable resemblance to a human congregation, which can hardly be supposed void of some rational meaning, is attested by the best authorities.'—

'A party of from six to ten economic rats is said to pitch upon a piece of dry flat cow-dung, on the middle of which they place the berries they have collected in a heap; then, drawing it to the water's edge by their united force, they launch it, and, embarking, place themselves round the heap, with their heads together in the centre, and their tails hanging in the stream, and thus they row themselves, or are wafted by the winds, across.'

Considerable attention has been bestowed on the plates; and the articles *dog*, *elephant*, &c. will be found interesting and comprehensive.

POETRY.

Art. 37. *Poems*, by Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

We have more than once announced and commended the poetic compositions of this lady *. Pathos we deem one of her peculiar excellencies; of which the following specimen may be given, from the present collection:

' *The Mourner.*

' Hence! cruel Life! nor more persist
To warm this sad, this broken heart!
When Henry's claycold lips I kissed,
How welcome, Death! had been thy dart!

' Speechless, they say, benumbed I seemed
While his last precious breath I caught;
No tears to sooth my sorrow streamed,
And agony suspended thought.

' They tell me, thunders rent the air,—
That vivid lightnings flashed around;—
But I beheld no lightning's glare,
Nor heard the pealing thunder sound.

' They tell me that my helpless child
I from my arms with fury tossed;—
It might be so,—for I was wild,—
The mother in the wife was lost.

' They tell me, on th' unconscious corse
At length bereft of sense I fell;—
Ah! blessed state! of balm the source!
It closed my ears to Henry's knell.

' But, happy state resembling death,
Why is your balmy stupor flown?
Ah! why restore a wretch's breath?
For I can only live to moan.

' E'en Reason says I justly weep,
And, ah! she says I weep in vain;
My midnight couch with tears I steep,
Then rise at morn—to weep again.

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* See Rev. N. S. Vol. xxxv. p. 163. *The Maid of Corinth*, there mentioned, forms a part of the present volume.

‘ When to my heart my child I fold,
She only deepens every sigh;
I think, while I her charms behold,
How she'd have pleased her father's eye.

‘ And while I from her lisping tongue
Soft childhood's artless accents hear,
I think, with vain remembrance wrung,
How she'd have charmed her father's ear.

‘ I think—but O forbear, fond heart!
From vain regrets to duties turn;—
Yes,—I will act a parent's part,—
I'll tear myself from Henry's urn.

‘ In life I still one charm can see,—
One flower adorns that dreary wild,—
That flower for care depends on *me*—
O precious charge!—'Tis HENRY'S CHILD.’

the reader possesses a heart, the above lines, we think, must
found their way to it.

38. *Poems*, by Wm. Boscawen, Esq. &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 145. 3s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1801.

e author of these poems is known by a respectable translation of
ce *, and has given the public a new proof of diligence, judg-
, and good sense in the present volume. It is not his fault if
ens divinior has not been bounteously granted to him; and the
candor, which forces us to take notice of the deficiency of poetic
his productions, requires us to observe that they contain many
houghts, and are generally remarkable for great correctness and
iety of expression.—If " proper words in proper places" were
missible definition of poetry, the present publication would rank
ghly in the scale of poetical merit as any that has lately been sub-
d to our notice.

not fewer than *seven* of the largest poems in this volume are
ssed to the subscribers to the Literary Fund, we cannot make
er extract than from one of their anniversary odes:

‘ Hark! 'tis the Muse's well-known voice—
(Heard ye the glad triumphant song?)
She bids her gentle choir rejoice,
And thus with rapture fires the throng:
Rise, ye who claim my guardian care!
Rise from the slumber of despair:
To dry your tears, to chase your woes,
With newborn zeal Britannia glows:
At length her generous sons proclaim
That want no more attends on fame;
At length a dawn of happier days
Bright with glad hope appears, to animate your lays.

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* M. R. Vols. xiv. xxiv. N. S.

'Behold, at Fancy's call, a radiant train
In lovely majesty appear!
And, while Compassion lends her ear,
With tender grief and fond regret complain
How Genius, fated to abide
The frowns of fortune, scoffs of pride,
Long strove in vain life's adverse storms to brave,
Long felt, unheeded and forlorn,
Sharp penury, relentless scorn,
And found its last best refuge in the grave;
While thoughtless wealth o'erlook'd its pains,
Or ruthless av'rice watch'd to seize its slender gains.'

The rest of the book is composed of odes, elegies, and epistles; which display less ease than correctness, and stronger symptoms of scholarship and study than of poetry or inspiration.

Art. 39. *Poetry for Children.* Consisting of short Pieces, to be committed to Memory. Selected by Lucy Aikin. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half bound. R. Phillips.

A good selection of poems from our best authors, and calculated to answer a similar purpose with the *Poetæ Græci* in our classical schools.

Art. 40. *Select Translations from the Works of Homer and Horace,* with original Poems. By Gilbert Thompson, M.D. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. W. Phillips. 1802.

These compositions are given to the world (we learn from the preface) in the 75th year of the author's age, and seem to have formed the occasional relaxation of a life dedicated to severer studies. The volume, however, betrays nothing of the garrulity of old age: the character of the style is dry and concise; and purity and strength of expression must be taken in compensation for the want of elegance or grace.

The translations from Homer are all in a plain and somewhat heavy blank verse, expressing the meaning and spirit of the original with considerable felicity, but not happily calculated to give the English reader an idea of the splendor of its diction and versification. One of the best executed is the following simile from the 12th book of the Iliad;

'As on a wintry day the snowy flakes
Fall numberless, when cloud-assembling Jove,
In counsel wise, hath purpos'd to display
Heaven's armory to mortals: first he calms
The winds, then pours th' incessant show'r that veils
Each summit and the lofty mountain-tops;
Spreads o'er the herby plains, and over all
The fruitful works of the laborious hind;
And on the havens falls, and on the shores
That bound the hoary deep; whose waves advancing,
Backward repel th' accumulating snows;
Yea all the face of nature from above

Wears one white vesture, when Jove's fleecy show'r
Frequent descends: so flew the missile stones
From Greeks to Trojans; from the Trojan race
Against the sons of Greece.'

n his preface, the author frequently mentions Pope's translation Homer, but takes no notice of Cowper's more recent production blank verse, though claiming a nearer affinity with his own. he translations of Horace are less intitled to praise. In rivalling brevity of the original, Dr. T. has generally lost sight of its uties; and he has shewn more boldness than judgment in ventu- on an undertaking in which Milton himself is generally allowed to failed. Our courtesy will scarcely extend so far as to let the wing lines (from Book II. Ode xii.) pass for verses:

'Fierce Numantia's wars, a long story to tell,
And Annibal dire, and Sicilian seas,
With blood of the Punics empurpled, can I,
To soft measures, adapt, of the lyre:
Or the Lapithæ cruel, Hylæus with wine
Over-drench'd, and the young sons of Earth who, subdued
By Herculean might, had with daring assault
Made tremble the starry domain
Of old Saturn; and better Mæcenas in phrase
Historic, the battles of Cæsar shall write,
His marches triumphal, and chains that invest
The necks of proud menacing kings.'

he original poems have but little to distinguish them. Those h aim at gallantry or familiarity are certainly the least successful; stiffness and heaviness mark the author's style, which exclude all races of facility.—The following lines, however, (written nearly years ago,) on a Latin translation of the psalms, have much of oint and terseness of Pope:

'When Time the beauty shall at once erase
Of Waller's verse and Saccharissa's face;
When lofty Granville weeps his faded bays,
And learning wonders what a Dryden says;
When years to come shall Cowley's glory stain,
And the Lost Paradise be lost again;
The fame of Addison its date fulfil;
Nay Homer want a new translator still;
This to thy name Eternity shall give:
Dead languages alone for ever live.'

the whole volume had been written in this manner, we should ave characterized it as a performance of ordinary merit.

LAW.

41. *A Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen:* four Parts: I. Of the Owners of Merchant Ships: II. Of the rsons employed in the Navigation thereof: III. Of the Car-

By Charles Abbott, of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 540. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

We have examined this volume with great attention, and have derived considerable satisfaction from it; since the subjects discussed are highly interesting in a country which owes so much of its importance to its commerce, and no treatise on them has appeared for more than a century. Respecting insurance, indeed, we have two works, one of which is of established reputation, and the other has been lately published (see Rev. for Nov. last, p. 280.);—but the topics here introduced by Mr. Abbott, though of a different nature, equally result from the same code of maritime law, and are equally deserving of investigation. The volume is compiled with great diligence and judgment from the text writers of our own nation, from the reporters of the decisions of our own courts, from the books of the civil law, and from such of the maritime laws of foreign nations and the works of foreign writers, as have come to the knowlege of the author. We recommend it to the profession, because we are certain that they will derive much valuable assistance from consulting it; the information which it conveys being accurate, and the arrangement of the materials very methodical.

We should with pleasure have enlarged on the merits of this production, and of several others which have lately come under our notice, if we consulted our own inclinations, or those of our professional friends alone: but the nature of our work prevents us from dwelling, at great length, on topics in which the generality of readers feel little interest.

Art. 42. *Practical Remarks and Precedents of Proceedings in Parliament:* Comprising the standing Orders of both Houses, to the End of the Year 1801; relative to the applying for and passing Bills for inclosing or draining Lands, making Turnpike Roads, Navigations, Aqueducts; building Bridges; for the more easy Recovery of small Debts; Paving, &c. Towns; confirming or prolonging the Term of Letters Patent; obtaining Divorces; and Bills called Estate Bills; with an Introductory Chapter, containing practical Directions for soliciting private Bills in general; and with occasional References to Acts of Parliament, adjudged Cases, &c. By Charles Thomas Ellis, of the Inner Temple. 8vo. pp. 280. 7s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth, &c. 1802.

We have transcribed the whole of this title-page, in order to make our readers acquainted with the variety of subjects considered in the present useful publication. Each House of Parliament has made certain standing orders, which, it is expected, should be strictly observed in proceedings on private Bills, unless a sufficient reason can be given for a deviation from them in particular cases. These orders it has been the object of Mr. Ellis to collect, and to point out the forms to be adopted previously to the introduction and during the pendency of private bills, in order to obtain a private act of parliament. For this purpose, a chapter is allotted to each bill; and the standing orders of either house, to the close of the last year, are methodically placed in that chapter, under the different heads to which they are immediately applicable, with a collection of precedents in general use, systematically arranged in an appendix. The author has also noticed those general standing orders which affect all private bills.—The work will be found useful by solicitors engaged in this lucrative department of business.—A publication by the same author on a similar subject was mentioned in our 30th vol. N. S. p. 458.

Art. 43. *Formulare Instrumentorum:* or a Formulary of authentic Instruments, Writs, and standing Orders, used in the High Courts of Admiralty of Great Britain, of Prize and Instance. Perused and approved as correct by Sir James Marriott, late Judge of the said Courts. 8vo. pp. 400. 8s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1802.

The subject of this volume can scarcely afford matter for criticism; since, if the forms of proceeding or instruments of process are correct, what more can be required or expected of them? and if the judge, in whose court they are used, has bestowed on them the sanction of his approbation, what caviller will dare to raise his voice? We should have dismissed this article, therefore, with the single observation that the work was likely to be found useful by those for whose service it was compiled, namely the practitioners in the court of Admiralty, had not our attention been arrested by some mysterious passages in the preface.—In our account of a former volume * edited by Sir James Marriott, we were compelled to observe "that the preface exhibited many instances of spleen and ill-will, and seemed to intimate much more than met the eye." The same remark must now be repeated, for it is merited in a still greater degree: but the eminent talents, the accurate and extensive knowlege, and the incorruptible integrity of Sir William Scott, need not be alarmed at the hostile efforts of any writer, particularly of one who is anonymous.

Art. 44. *A Pocket Dictionary of the Law of Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes, Bank Notes, Checks, &c.* With an Appendix containing Abstracts of Acts and select Cases relative to negotiable Securities, Analysis of a Court in Assumpsit, Tables of Notarial Fees, Stamps, Postages, &c. By John Irving Maxwell, Esq. of the Hon. Society of the Inner Temple, Author of "The Spirit of Marine Law †," &c. 8vo. pp. 270. 5s. Boards. Clarke and Sons. 1802.

If this compilation be intended for the use of the *mercantile* man, we are at a loss to conjecture of what service the analysis of a court in assumpsit will prove to him; if, on the other hand, it be designed for the *professional* man, the information which it contains is too slight to intitle it to much attention.

Art. 45. *A Compendious View of the Civil Law, and of the Law of Admiralty;* being the Substance of a Course of Lectures read in the University of Dublin. By Arthur Browne, LL.D. S.F.T.C.D. Professor of Civil Law in that University, and Representative in three Parliaments for the same. The second Edition, with great Additions. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

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* Vide M. R. N. S. Vol. xxxv. p. 431.

† See Rev. Vol. xxxiv.

Of the former edition of this work, we gave an account in our 29th and 34th vols. N. S.; in the present, 'the author has greatly compressed that part which treated of the ecclesiastical law of Ireland, and has supplied its place by enlarging on the law of the Admiralty, and shewing its connection with the civil law.'—That portion of the work, which relates to the law and practice of the courts of Admiralty, though it does not profess to be a complete treatise on the subject, contains much valuable information, and will be found useful by lawyers; to whose attention we recommend it.

Art. 46. *The Law of Landlord and Tenant*; including Leases, Assignments, Tenants in Fee, for Life, for Years, at Will, Rent, Mortgages, Corporations, Ecclesiastical Persons, Copyholds, Lodgings, Waste, Fixtures, Notice to quit, Ejectment, Distress, Remedies for Landlord and Tenant, and Poors Rate. To which is added an Appendix of Precedents. By William Woodfall, of the Middle Temple, Esq. Barrister at Law. Royal 8vo. pp. 730. 16s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

This will be found a very convenient compilation; and we have quoted the title-page at length, in order to shew to our Readers on what a great variety of topics this volume may be consulted with advantage. Other treatises on this subject have appeared, but they are all (except one, which is only a pamphlet,) of an early date; so that some statutes have been enacted, and numerous cases decided, in the interval. Mr. Woodfall has comprehended every thing in his work, that is connected with the law of landlord and tenant, on which information can at any time be required; he has arranged his materials methodically; and he has written perspicuously. He modestly says; 'The claim of a compiler to any merit for his performance must be at best merely negative. The compiler of this work will have attained his object, if it be found that he has in any tolerable degree combined accuracy of research with clearness of explanation.'

The editor is certainly intitled to the praise of having produced a very satisfactory work, on a subject also in which there are questions of no inconsiderable difficulty; and a publication useful not only to the professional man, but to almost every member of society; for how few persons are there, who are not interested in the rights of either landlord or tenant?

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 47. *The Beauties of Sentiment*, or select Extracts from the best Authors, antient and modern, on a great Variety of Subjects, on a Plan entirely new. With synonymous Words, and a Definition of most of the Articles. Also a List of the best Books on the principal Subjects.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Symonds, &c. 1801.

Writers on almost every subject are now become so numerous, and the price of modern books is so much advanced, that it is not easy for the majority of readers either to select the most desirable, or to purchase the most valuable. Hence epitomes and extracts have formed of late a fashionable species of publication; and certainly, to those who are not able to make their own selection, they may, if well executed, constitute a very useful resource.—Of the volumes before us, the first is a compilation from a variety of authors, both of the Establishment and Dissenters, on sacred topics. The object of the editor appears to be more particularly to establish the doctrines of *Faith* and *Grace*, as they are taught in the *Evangelical* school.—The second volume consists of extracts from our most approved authors on moral and literary subjects, which are well arranged under their respective classes, and render it a good text-book and director for such persons as are removed at a distance from the fountain head, and are therefore obliged to "drink of the brook in the way."

Art. 48. *Astley's System of Equestrian Education*, exhibiting the Beauties and Defects of the Horse; with serious and important Observations on his general Excellence, preserving him in Health, Grooming, &c. With Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Sold at the Amphitheatre, and by all Booksellers.

The well known experience and skill of Mr. Astley, now a veteran in equestrian practice, are sufficient recommendations of this work, without any critical passport. Most willingly, however, do we add our testimony, and strongly advise the perusal of these pages by all those who can be interested in their contents; and few are *not*, in some way, concerned in the right management of the noble animal whose character is thus truly and eloquently described by Mr. Astley:

'I crave permission to remark, that this generous and serviceable creature possesses the courage of the lion, the fleetness of the deer, the strength of the ox, with the docility of the spaniel: by his aid, men become more acquainted with each other; he not only bears us through foreign climes, but likewise labours in the culture of our soil; draws our burdens and ourselves; carries us for our amusement and our exercise; and both in the sports of the field and on the turf, exerts himself with an emulation, that evinces how eagerly ambitious he is to please and to gratify the desires of his master.

'He is both our slave and our guardian; he gives profit to the poor, and pleasure to the rich; in our health he forwards our concerns, and in our sickness lends his willing assistance for our recovery.

'This fine, this spirited animal participates with man the toils of the campaign, and the glory of conquest; penetrating and undaunted as his master, he views dangers, and braves them; accustomed to the din of arms, he loves it with enthusiasm, seeks it with ardour, and seems to vie with his master in his animated efforts to meet the foe with intrepidity, and to conquer every thing that opposes itself to his matchless courage.'

We learn from the inscription under Mr. Astley's portrait, prefixed to this volume, that he is now in his 61st year.

Art. 49. *Excentric Biography; or Sketches of remarkable Characters, antient and modern.* Including Potentates, Statesmen

Divines, Historians, Naval and Military Heroes, Philosophers, Lawyers, Impostors, Poets, Painters, Players, Dramatic Writers, Misers, &c. The whole Alphabetically arranged; and forming a pleasing Delineation of the Singularity, Whim, Folly, Caprice, &c. of the Human Mind. Ornamented with Portraits of the singular Characters noticed in the Work. 12mo. pp. 348. 4s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

We have sometimes thought that a volume of biography, such as this professes to be, containing the lives of persons distinguished for the singularity of their humour or the excentricity of their general conduct, would be highly acceptable to the public. Every town and almost every village in the united kingdom has, or has had, its oddity, of whom anecdotes are related in the neighbourhood; and which, collected with judgment, would be not only entertaining to the public at large, but highly interesting to all who follow what the poet deems the proper study of mankind. The present work, however, does not altogether accord with our ideas; nor, as we think, with its title. Thomas Britton, the musical small coal-man, Mary Tofts, vulgarly called the rabbit-woman of Godalming, Greatorex the stroker, Elizabeth Canning, Hannah Snell, John Mounsey, Esq. commonly called the king of Patterdale, Baron Trenck, Emanuel Swedenborg, Lord Herbert of Cherbury, Hastings of Huntingdon, the Duchess of Kingston, Mrs. Bellamy, Dr Graham, Mr. John Howard, and a hundred others, the reader will here seek in vain; though he will find Alexander the Great, Anacreon, Archimedes, &c. through the Alphabet, to Zeno and Zeuxis. In short, the work consists too much of details which occur in every book of biography, magazine, &c.—In the life of the facetious Captain Grose, however, we met with an anecdote new to us, which we shall quote, because it is a good one.

'Though an officer in the militia, his figure was so remarkably short and thick, that some pretended to think him a kind of burlesque on the military character. He delighted much in punning on his own figure, of which we shall mention an instance, as a proof of his familiarity and goodnature. In a culinary tête-à-tête with his housekeeper, she thus expostulated with him: "Sir, as you are *inclinable to be fat*, you should not eat food of a nourishing kind; you ought rather"——. "You jade," interrupted he, "I am *not inclinable to be fat*. That I am fat is wholly *against my inclination*. I consider it as a *misfortune* to be fat. For the future, therefore, remember that I am *disinclined* to be fat."

The singular but respectable character of Matthew Robinson, Lord Rokeby, who died at his seat near Romney in Kent, in Dec. 1800, aged 88, is one of the excentricities recorded in this volume; and a portrait of him is added. Two or three other miniatures are also prefixed.

Art. 50. *The Picture of London, for* 1803: Being a correct Guide to all the Curiosities, Amusements, Exhibitions, public Establishments, and remarkable Objects, in and near London; with a Collection of appropriate Tables. For the Use of Strangers, Foreigners, and all Persons who are not intimately acquainted with the British Metropolis. 12mo. 5s. bound. R. Phillips.

The editor of this *pocket cicerone* speaks in the most sanguine terms of its utility, and an inspection of it leaves us but little inclined to dispute his pretensions. It contains, indeed, a great variety of information which will be very acceptable to every person, native or foreigner, stranger or *old acquaintance*, who visits the great emporium of the British Empire;—and the whole is well arranged, and rendered easily accessible by a copious index. Some neat plates and maps also illustrate the volume.

It is intimated that the work will be continued annually, with the requisite alterations and additions.

Art. 51. *A new Mode of conducting the Corn Markets of Great Britain;* with a Plan to put a stop to Monopoly in Provisions. By James Sayers, of Bath. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1802.

When we are in doubt whether to treat a subject seriously or ludicrously, we often incline to the latter; because our occupation has in general such an overstock of gravity in it, that we find it to require a little relief:—Mr. S. must therefore forgive us if we laughed at his plan as wild and extravagant. Precious as our time is, we perused the whole of his pamphlet: but, when we inform our readers that he recommends five millions sterling to be expended in the erection of enormous market-houses in order that corn may be brought in bulk to market, to oblige farmers to take out *licences*, to use *permits*, to be *registered* and *roll-called* like soldiers before the market commences, they will probably take the hint, and save both their time and their money.

Had not the name of the author been affixed, we should have considered this pamphlet as designed to ridicule the various romantic schemes which have been thrown out, respecting the price of provisions. Our own opinion is that trade ought not to be unnecessarily embarrassed; and that, the less Government interferes, the better it will be for the community. In times of accidental dearness, alterations of the old system are suggested, as if the laws were to blame, instead of bad seasons and other unpropitious circumstances; when in justice we ought to reflect that, under the system which declaimers are in such haste to destroy, cheapness and national prosperity have in general prevailed. The united blessings of peace and abundant harvests will preclude the necessity of making Market-houses as large as Cathedrals.

Art. 52. *A Dissertation on Landed Property*, so far as respects Manors, Farms, Mills, and Timber. By Robert Serle. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

Judgment must be combined with experience, in order to qualify a man for ably lecturing on any subject; and Mr. Serle appears to possess both these requisites in the present discussion. Though his remarks are concise, they are much to the purpose, and country gentlemen may derive benefit from a perusal of them.

Having been employed by the Bishop of Winchester in carrying into effect a plan for rectifying abuses which had crept into some

Manors belonging to the diocese, Mr. Serle's attention was particularly directed to manors, and their incidents,—to farms and their management,—to mills,—and to timber, its cutting down and the application of it to the uses of husbandry. We cannot particularly notice the various contents of this pamphlet: but we shall in two instances state the result of his observations.

First, with respect to the inclosure of common fields, Mr. Serle remarks 'that it cannot be always necessary to the extent proposed, and in many instances would not be wished. The thing desired is to put together the scattered lots of each person, and to preserve common fields as the most convenient arrangement.'—

Secondly, we shall give his opinion on the subject of large and small farms.

'Assertions have often been made, that large farms are detrimental, for that poultry and pigs, so necessary for daily sustenance, are not an object to the large farmer. The main reason lies deeper; it arises from the extent of the farm, and the comparative distance of the grounds from the farm yard. In Hampshire, three-fourths of the land are in the hands of large farmers, and distributed in progression, from three to fifteen hundred acres: the remaining fourth, from 250 acres downwards, is in small farms. One third of large farms produce a regular course every four years, and small ones in the same time; but the other two thirds of large farms do not come round under the eighth year; the land lying so wide, that the farmer cannot cultivate it, without great labour. The balance of produce is against large farms.—There is nothing to be done for encouraging a better management of these two thirds, but building a small farm house, &c. and with this addition an increase of rent is to be expected. No doubt can be had on the score of expedience.'

These extracts will speak for themselves; and the author's hints respecting coppices and timber trees are not less judicious.

Art. 53. *A few Days in Paris*; with Remarks characteristic of several distinguished Personages. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

The author of this tract, who is of the military profession, and has seen 'twenty years service in the British army,' writes like a man of discernment and a gentleman, but under great national prejudices and prepossessions, and with rather a limited scope of observation. He seems desirous of persuading his countrymen that Paris deserves not that eager curiosity which has lately been directed towards it, and that they will act wisely in staying in old England; which possesses so many superior recommendations in the gifts of nature, the acquirements of art, and the comforts of society. With regard to the latter point, indeed, he says that society is 'no where to be found in Paris:' but we must observe that here is no reference to the company of men of science, literature, and the arts. The author attended once, and only once, at the National Institute; and his account of the proceedings is sufficiently depreciating, concluding with this remark: 'I saw too much of the deadly spirit of literary envy and competition, to have any desire to repeat my visit.'

Various passages in this pamphlet may be compared with the accounts given in a similar production, noticed in p. 420. of this number. Bo [illegible] us described:

'The person of the First Consul is small, below the ordinary size of men. The Consular *garb* does not become him; he looks best in the plain uniform of a National Guard, which he much affects to wear. His face is strongly marked with melancholy, reflection, and deep thought; the lines of premature age are very visible in him. He is said to be impenetrable, even to his friends—dreadful state! But this ill accords with the boiling rage he threw himself into at the discomfiture at Acre *. His eyes are well formed, and well set, animating a countenance which has been seldom known to smile. His voice is the deepest toned I ever heard, and seems to issue from a tomb. His mouth is large and handsome; and in general it may be asserted, there is that harmony of features which denotes an 'Entire Character.' The various resemblances of him are tolerably exact; though they by no means do him justice, nor give his *Look*, which is extremely interesting.'

A particular relation of the monthly grand review of the troops next occurs, which will interest the author's military readers.

Madame Bonaparte is said to be 'dying for a drawing room,—but this cannot be:' yet we now know that, among other impossibilities, this also has been effected since the author penned this sentence.

Some anecdotes respecting Mr. Fox's reception at Paris, the usual presentations to the First Consul, and to the Secretary for foreign affairs, &c. are inserted: but the work is rather a series of reflections than the detail of a tour, or a description of the French metropolis.

An appendix contains an original letter from the much lamented Sir Ralph Abercrombie, giving directions for the retreat of a column of our army in Holland in 1795; Sir R. Wilson's account of the massacre of the garrison of Jaffa, and of the 3800 prisoners, of the sick and wounded in the hospitals, &c. &c.; and the whole terminates with the following expressive remark on the immoralities of Paris:

'There is a touch of dissoluteness in Paris as offensive to decency as it is destructive of *pleasure*; and the women in France have yet to learn, what it is so much their interest to know, that the imagination is a *busy power*. In a word, the French are hastening fast towards the state of manners that has been humorously predicted of England: "This sublime age reduces every thing to its *quintessence*. All periphrasis and expletives are so much in disuse, that very soon the only way of making love will be to say *lie down*." (Lord Orford.)

Art. 54. *Village Dialogues*, between Farmer Littleworth and Thomas Newman, Rev. Mr. Lovegood, Parson Dolittle, and others. By Rowland Hill, A. M. 12mo. 1s. Williams.

If there can be no doubt of the good design of the author of these dialogues, yet it may be questioned whether their tendency be in all respects unobjectionable. Desirable as it may be to diffuse religious principles among the poor, we do not wish to encourage in them that affectation of piety which is commonly called *cant*, with spiritual pride, and contempt of their superiors. We may ask Mr.

'* See Sir Sidney Smith's account of that event.'

Hill, moreover, while he condemns stage plays, whether it be proper for him to call dramatic dress and effect to his aid; and whether it be fair to prejudice the mind by the use of such names as he has employed;—whether, for instance, the clergymen who are not of the sect to which Mr. H. is partial ought to be called Mr. Dolittle, Dr. Blunderbuss, and Dr. Dronish?

Thomas Newman is a labourer converted to methodism, and who succeeds also in converting his master, farmer Littleworth. On raking up and burning the weeds in the field, he prays that the Lord may burn the weeds of sin in our hearts! He does the work himself in one instance, and then hopes that the Lord will do it in the other.—This labourer and his family are represented as comfortable and happy in their cottage, having the deficiencies of wages assisted by the liberality of those who admire his virtue: but this, as a general representation, is not a fair one. If all the poor were equally respectable with Thomas Newman, liberality must be divided, and then their state would not be such as Mr. H. describes.

Art. 55. *Impartial Thoughts on the intended Bridges over the Menai and the Conway*, with Remarks on the different Plans which are now in Contemplation for improving the Communication between Great Britain and Ireland through the Principality of Wales: To which are prefixed, Sketches of the Bridges, and a Map of the Roads. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

Of the question agitated in this pamphlet, we know little more than we have gathered from the tract itself. The writer lays claim to impartiality; and if he be not impartial, to us at least he appears to be so, for we find things stated fully, clearly, and ably. He has some tincture of philosophy and learning; and if the composition be not skilful from habit, it is at least agreeable from the propriety of the author's taste and judgment. As we consider ourselves in some respects as guardians of the purity of the English language, we object to the phrase *tidal* waters; and in page 23, instead of *physical* impossibility, the author uses the phrase '*moral* impossibility.'

These are but trifling observations; and the perusal of the pamphlet has so well satisfied us, that we think it our duty to recommend it to all persons, to whom the subjects discussed in it may be matter of concern.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 56. *Thoughts on the Harvest.* Preached at the Chapel of St. Mary, Penzance, Jan. 17, 1802. By Charles Valentine Le Grice, A. B. late of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Badcock.

Various allusions are made in the Parables of Christ to the vegetable creation, and some of these are noticed by Mr. Le Grice: but there is one expressly on the Harvest which he does not mention.—He conceives that the expression in the Parable of the Prodigal, "when he came to himself," implies that he had previously *fainted* through hunger; in which conjecture there is something plausible: but Mr. Le Grice's inferences from the story of the temptation, and from the nature of vegetation, are far fetched and irrelevant. He speaks of 'the *pass* of time,' which perhaps is a Cornish provincialism.

Art. 57. *Charity the Bond of Peace and of all Virtues*, composed, preached, and published, at the Request of the Philanthropic Society at Banbury, in the County of Oxford. By John Lambert, M. A. Curate. 4to. 1s. Vernor and Hood.

To some general observations on the excellence of benevolence, is here subjoined an earnest recommendation of the Charitable Society at whose request this sermon was preached; and which Mr. L. asserts, on his own knowlege, has been productive of great advantages.—The outline of the plan, with the rules of the Society, ought to have been given with the sermon, for the information of those parishes who may wish to form a similar institution.

Art. 58. Preached at the Cathedral Church of Winchester, at the Summer Assizes, 1801, holden for the County of Southampton. By John Davies, A. B. of St. Mary Hall, Oxford. 4to. pp. 14. Portsmouth, printed.

This discourse appears to us very well adapted to the solemn occasion. The preacher offers, in plain and proper language, those reflections which are calculated to deter or reclaim men from vice, and make them dread the seat of the profligate and the scorner. It may, perhaps, be his modesty which leads him often to introduce quotations from other writers; and they are short and fairly acknowleged. We find at the foot of the pages the names of Stillingfleet, Jortin, Beccaria, Shepherd, Porteus, and several others.

Art. 59. Preached at the Close of a Series of Lectures on the Signs and Duties of the Times, continued for nearly three Years, in the Metropolis, by a Society of Clergymen. Published at the unanimous Request of the Society. By Thomas Scott, Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 8vo. 9d. Seeley, &c.

This discourse may be classed among the thanksgiving sermons for the peace, and its general tendency is to animate us with pious gratitude for that event. To the common objection that the peace will not be permanent, Mr. Scott replies; 'if God hath, after a tremendous storm, brought us safe to a commodious anchorage, in answer to our prayers, let us trust him that he will in future prevent farther storms, or carry us safely through them;' and in answer to those who apprehend danger to our principles from an intercourse with the Continent, he observes that we may "follow peace with all men," and yet "have no fellowship with the unfruitful works of darkness."

Art. 60. Preached in the Chapel of Gosport, 14th February 1802, being the yearly Meeting of the Children educated at the Charity Schools in the Town of Gosport. By Edward Poulter, M. A. Prebendary of Winchester. 8vo. 1s. White.

St. Paul's panegyric on *Charity* in 1 Cor. xiii. 18., in which he exalts it above Faith and Hope, gives occasion to Mr. Poulter to discuss and to exhibit the excellence of this virtue. He maintains it to be the surest road to fame as well as to heaven: but, when he makes this assertion, he understands by charity the divine principle of benevolence, which is directed by reason and not by passion, and which is uniform and progressive in its operation. On the nobleness of that charity which has education for its object, and which employs itself rather to prevent than to remove misery, he argues with force:

and the generous and liberal sentiments of the preacher are as honourable to his own heart, as they must have been useful in recommending the institutions for the benefit of which they were inculcated.

Art. 61. Preached before the Stamford Lodge of Odd Fellows, in the Parish Church of All-Saints, Stamford, 14th June 1802. By the Rev. Robert Lascelles Carr. 4to. 1 s. 6 d. White.

From the text with *five sparrows* in it, (Luke, xii. v. 6.) the preacher *oddly* enough addresses the *odd* fellows, and leaves them to infer from his arguments in favour of a *particular* Providence that, since the Creator does not forget a little animal, worth no more than half a farthing and the fraction of half a farthing, he will not overlook an *odd fellow* of the Stamford Lodge: who, with all his oddities, must be of more value than a poor sparrow. In justice to Mr. Carr, however, we must observe that his sermon is not disgraced by any *oddities*; and we learn also that the *oddies* to whom it was addressed are not *noddies*, but a set of very honest fellows. Yet, before Mr. C. again seriously preaches to them from the pulpit, should he not advise them to adopt some other appellation? If a society of well meaning men should jocosely choose to be called the *Hell-fire Club*, it would be *more than odd* to hear a Christian Divine directing his exhortations to *the gentlemen of Hell-fire*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Parker's letter, on the subject of his pamphlet on Gates, &c. (see Rev. Nov. p. 335-6.) proceeds on a misconception of our meaning respecting the plates. We stated that we could not present all his ideas to our readers, because we could not exhibit the engravings; not that the plates were wanting in our copy of the tract.

The letter signed *Jafozi and Vabotsav* relates to a matter which appears not to come within our cognizance.

We request to know how we may return the packet from E. C. in Cumberland. Such applications are frequently made to us, and must always be rejected: but, in the present instance, we will at least desire our Correspondent to indulge no vain hopes which will lead to painful disappointments.

We are sorry for the complaint of '*A Constant Reader*' respecting any marks of haste in printing and stitching the Numbers of the M. R.: but the circumstances attending periodical publications render it impossible always to guard against such *incuriæ*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXIX. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, containing the FOREIGN LITERATURE, Title, Index, &c. will appear with the Number for January.

⁂ In the Rev. for Nov. P. 273. l. 9. for '*Fichtelia*,' r. *C. Fichtelii*; and for '*Schritteri*,' r. *Schrætteri*. P. 275. l. 21. for '*Calliuna*,' r. *Calluna*. P. 313. l. 5. from bot. for 'material plates,' r. *material of the plates*. P. 324. l. 19 for 'form, of,' r. *forms of*. l. 36. insert *a* before '*standard*.'

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-NINTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Traités de Législation Civile et Pénale*, &c.; *i. e.* Treatises on Legislation, Civil and Penal; preceded by General Principles of Legislature, and a View of a complete Body of Law; and followed by an Essay on the Influence of Time and Place respecting Laws. By Jeremy Bentham, an English Barrister. Published in French by *Et. Dumont*, of Geneva, according to Manuscripts intrusted to him by the Author. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London.

We feel some regret on being called to introduce, in our foreign department, a publication which properly belongs to the literature of our own country; and the merit of which is such that we are not disposed to resign our claims respecting its origin. It appears strange, indeed, that a foreigner should be the first to undertake for Mr. Bentham a labour to which it seems he has the greatest dislike, viz. that of revising his own productions; and we wish that the province had been assumed by some Englishman, who might thus have prevented the naturalization of a performance which does credit to the age, among a rival people too much inclined to dispute our best and fairest pretensions. The editor very frankly states the share which he has had in this production, and he speaks like a man of honour and candour; yet while we allow this, we must add that the work does not always sufficiently bear the marks of its English origin, and that the editor (unwarily, we doubt not,) gives it too much of the cast of a French composition. M. *Dumont* is however intitled to general thanks, for having rescued these papers from the concealment in which they would otherwise, most probablhave much longer continued; and for having thus afforded the public an opportunity of obtaining the important information which they convey.

The singular ability shewn by Mr. BENTHAM on former occasions *, in treating subjects of the sort here discussed; and the reputation of the editor, who was the coadjutor of *Mirabeau*, and the friend and inmate of an enlightened statesman in this country; disposed us to pay particular attention to the volumes before us;—and, as we proceeded in the perusal of them, we found the matter contained in them fully justifying the conjectures which we had formed of their merit. If we have rightly appreciated the labours of Mr. BENTHAM, they open so much of a new career in jurisprudence, that they will be considered as forming an epoch in its history; and if we do not greatly mistake, the shelves which contain the former books on the laws of nations, on general legislation, and on the Roman code, will sink greatly in value in the estimation of those who carefully digest the contents of this work. The attentive reader, who enters on it without prejudice, will see that, if he means not to be deceived and to lose his way in chaos, he must have recourse to first principles, to the foundations of morals, to the rules of sound logic, to the researches of metaphysicians, to nomenclatures founded on the properties of things, to models of scientific classification, and to the frequent study of these papers: he will then descend with ease to the perusal of the productions of former jurists, and will readily discern the material errors, the confusion of terms, and the want of arrangement, chargeable on the best informed and most acute among them. He will be no longer puzzled by the paradoxes which procured great temporary celebrity for a confident class of authors; of which the logic here laid down shews the futility in theory, as effectually as the experience of our time has exemplified their mischief in practice.

By substituting accurate for loose definitions, as well in those terms which pertain to the foundation of legislation as in those of secondary import, by an improved classification, by a new nomenclature, and by a more happy arrangement, Mr. B. has been able to erect his coercive and preventive systems: the one insuring protection against crime more completely than any yet known, and the other promising to contract its empire more than our sanguine hopes would have anticipated. The readers of his former works are not unacquainted with these principles, but they will here see farther into the use that may be made of them.

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* See Rev. Vols. lxxviii. p. 361. and Vol. xvi. N. S. pp. 298. 406.

This collection, it is observed by the editor in his introduction, contains no treatise on the subject of a political constitution: but we are told that we are not to infer, from this omission, that the author considers all forms of government as matters of indifference, nor that he is of opinion that there is no certainty in the theory of political powers, but that he is far from entertaining an exclusive preference for any particular mode of government. He thinks that *the best constitution for any people is that to which it has been accustomed*; — that the public welfare is the only end, the only object of intrinsic value, and that *political liberty is but a relative good, one of the means of arriving at this end*; — that, where good laws prevail, the public welfare may exist in a high degree, even if there is no political liberty; — and that, where most political liberty exists, if the laws are bad, the people will necessarily be miserable. We earn that Mr. BENTHAM, while directing his researches to the vices of laws as the cause of the largest number of evils, has been ever studious to guard against what he considers as the greatest evil of all, namely, the overthrow of authority, and revolutions of property and power. The existing government is the instrument by which he seeks to give effect to his views; and in exhibiting to all governments the means of amelioration, he points out to them the means also of insuring and prolonging their own existence. His conclusions are equally applicable to monarchies and to republics. He does not say to the people, 'seize on authority, and change the form of the state:' but he says to governments: 'Inform yourselves of the maladies which enfeeble you, and study the regimen which will cure them: adapt all your legislative operations to the wants and lights of the age: enact good civil and penal laws: so frame your tribunals, that they shall inspire public confidence: simplify every process: in your taxations, avoid oppression and inefficiency; and encourage commerce by imple methods. Have you not all an equal interest in perecting these branches of administration? Extinguish the danerous notions which have been disseminated among your eople, by advancing their welfare. You have the formation f the laws; and this right alone, judiciously exercised, may ecome the safeguard of all the rest. It is by opening a career legitimate hopes, that you arrest that of those which are unlawful.'

To preserve while correcting, to study circumstances, to huour ruling even if unreasonable prejudices, to prepare innovaons so gradually that finally they appear not to be such, to avoid rangements of and shocks to property and power, not to sturb the channel of hopes and habits, to reform abuses without detriment to present interests;—such are the lessons which constitute the uniform object of this work. If we owe the analytic mode of reasoning to Socrates, the aid of classification and the invention of the syllogism to Aristotle, and induction as applied to physics to Bacon; so, in the opinion of the editor, we owe to Mr. BENTHAM a logical apparatus, which has its principle, its tables, its catalogues, its classifications, and its rules; and by means of which he has converted *into science* those branches of morals and legislation, which hitherto have been the domains only of erudition, eloquence, and genius.

The editor considers these Treatises as forming an antidote to two sorts of political poison, that which is diffused by the sceptics, and that in which the dogmatists abound.—The sceptics he represents as those who deny that there are any certain and universal principles of legislation. Defining the object of law to be *to prevent evil,* and stating the progress already made in the attainment of that end, he clearly shews the utter unreasonableness of this desponding doctrine.—The dogmatists he describes as consisting of jarring sects, but all agreeing in the practice of crying up some general principle, such as passive obedience, divine right, rights of man, social contract, &c.; who contend for uniformity in modes of government; who maintain that their favourite systems are the fittest for all times and places; and who would establish them universally. These men consider the species rather than the individual; and, in their estimation, the welfare of the existing generation has no weight. Opposite in every respect to these are the tenets of Mr. B.:—he would introduce no law till the reason of it is most clearly assigned; he has taken pains to unravel the sophisms by which men have justified the sacrifice of present individual interests to those which are distant and abstract; he would not let a particle of evil fall on the most odious malefactor, without satisfactorily shewing the necessity of it; and he would make no law irrevocable, even for a time. Agreeably to his admirable maxim, *Que de choses dans une Loi!* his system is moderate, cautious, claiming solidity rather than splendour, and aiming at permanent benefit rather than displaying imposing energy.

Though the substance of the first volume of this collection has already been laid before the public by Mr. B. himself, and reported in our 16th Vol. N. S. we shall be under the necessity of again taking some notice of it in this place, in order to give our readers an insight into what follows.

We agree with Mr. BENTHAM in his defence of the principle of utility against the objections of the advocates for the theolo-
, principle: but, with due deference to his mode of argu-
t, we submit that the principle of utility, and that of the

will of God, should never be allowed to be stated as hostile; and that the attack from this quarter should be parried by maintaining the coincidence of the rules drawn from each source. Instead of arguing in favour of the rule drawn from utility, we should require them to shew the instances in which that which is founded on the divine will moves contrary to or departs from the former. This mode, it appears to us, cuts the controversy short, leaves no ground for the odium which unfair adversaries seek to throw on the side of the advocates for the principle of utility, and insures to the latter an easy victory. Will grave men contend that, while the *physical* phænomena suggest unerring laws for conduct, the *mental* do not; and that moral phænomena lead to one set of conclusions, while revelation requires the belief of opposite deductions; that the page of nature holds out a certain law, while that of scripture maintains a contradictory one? Do we not allow the near advances of Socrates, Aristotle, and Tully, to a perfect moral system; and why are the antient moralists to be less outstripped by the moderns, than the antient naturalists? Can they produce an instance in which a course of vice has led to as much genuine happiness, as the opposite line of virtue would have produced? When we see men violate all sanctions, can it be of bad consequence that the tendency of the temporal should be the same with that of the spiritual? Or, is it serving virtue to proclaim her at war with utility?—The declarations of certain modern ecclesiastics, adopted by others who seek favour with them, have drawn from us these observations.

Mr. BENTHAM next considers the principle of utility as opposed by the ascetic, and that of sympathy and antipathy. Among the votaries of the latter, he includes all those who make the moral sense, common sense, the understanding, the fitness of things, the law of nature, natural justice, &c. the criterion of the morality of actions. The ascetic principle he considers as in direct opposition to the doctrine of utility, while that of sympathy and antipathy often coincide with it; and he thinks that the ascetic rule is practised only by individuals or small associations, and never by governments. He is of opinion that the latter act on the principle of sympathy and antipathy; that all their endeavours to promote liberty, commerce, power, justice, &c. are to be referred to this motive; that their error consists in regarding these respectable objects as ends, whereas they are means only; and that they substitute them in the place of the good which they are calculated to produce.

In applying the scale of pains and pleasures to morals, the author only treads in the same path with preceding writers: but, when he makes it the basis of legislation, the field is

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more his own.—Any reasoning in morals, he says, which cannot be translated by those simple terms, *pain* and *pleasure*, is obscure, sophistical, and barren. The following passage is a key to his whole system;

> 'Would you inquire into the subject matter of *offences*, that prevalent object in all legislation; this examination is nothing but a comparison, a calculation of pains and pleasures. If we consider *crime* or the *ill* of certain actions, that is to say, the pains which result from them to certain individuals, we investigate the *motive* of the offender, or the attraction of a certain pleasure which led him to commit it: the *fruit* of the crime, that is to say, the acquisition of a certain pleasure which was the consequence of it: the *legal punishment* to be inflicted, that is to say, one of those pains which the delinquent is forced to undergo. The theory of pains and pleasures, then, is the foundation of the whole science.'

Pleasures and pains, considered as sanctions of law, the author divides into four classes: 1. physical; 2. moral; 3. political; 4. religious. He considers the respective force of these several sanctions, their modes of operating separately in opposition to each other, or conjointly, and their proper and their undue limits.

The circumstances which affect sensibility are very neatly stated, and the conclusions are ingeniously and luminously connected with the province of a legislator. A knowlege of these circumstances, Mr. B. says, is necessary, 1. in order to estimate the degree of an offence: 2. to find the measure of satisfaction due to the injured party: 3. to ascertain the effect of the pains inflicted on offenders: 4. to adapt laws to countries, and to classes of subjects in the same country.—His remarks on the subject of political good and evil, and on the mode of their gaining ground in society, claim the reader's utmost attention; not only on account of their novelty, their excellence, and as specimens of moral analysis, but as being the basis of his system of penal legislation: on which subject they throw very strong light. Every new offence, he says, is an encouragement to the commission of more; it lessens the attendant ignominy; it is a direct injury to the party, and through the channel of interest and sympathy it extends the mischief to his immediate connections; it is an evil to society as affecting it with alarm, and as increasing its danger; which, if it be followed by others, may become so great as not only to wound a people with distressing apprehensions, but to paralyse their active powers *. He also traces the course of unrestrained crime from its first to its extreme point, from its evil effects on the individual to the dissolution of the bonds of society.

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* Mr. B. has passed over the negative part of the evil; namely, the loss to society in its deprivation of the fruits which would have arisen

Mr. B. next defines the different limits of legislation and morals. Both, he says, have the same end, but they differ in their extent; they have the same centre, but unequal circumferences. The sanctions of laws are not of equal extent with those of morals, because the moral delinquency is in many cases a less evil than the law; because the ordinary means of the law are inadequate to its detection; because the law cannot be made equal to the suppression of a slight vice, without often giving rise to others of more importance. In order to shew the absurdity of religious penal laws, he asks; if a man believes that conformity to a given usage, or the profession of a certain creed, will deprive him of a state of heavenly felicity, what can the legislator oppose to an interest so important?—He advises legislators to be sparing of laws for the prevention of self-injuries, and to interpose only to check those which respect others.

The chapter on false modes of reasoning in matters of legislation is a most agreeable miscellany; disclosing a fund of original ideas, and displaying happy logical skill and great acuteness. The reader will be most struck with the refutation of the false reasonings which are founded on the metaphorical expressions, "*an Englishman's house is his castle,*" "*the mother-country,*" "*corruption of blood,*" "*social contract,*" &c. &c. It is curious that, amid the multitude of argumentations on these subjects, it has seldom been considered that they were founded on figures of speech, the justness of the application of which ought to have been first examined.

Mr. BENTHAM denies the existence of natural law and natural right in their literal sense, while he condemns them as metaphorical expressions, because they occasion contradictions in language. Right, he contends, is created by law, and incapable of any other origin; nature knows only faculties and means, the exercise of which it is the object of right, founded on law, to insure and guarantee.

The principle of utility (says Mr. B.) having often been ill applied, or understood in a confused sense; having lent its name to crimes; and having been considered as the opposite of eternal justice; it appeared in a degraded light, it had the reputation of being mercenary, and courage became necessary to restore it to credit, and to establish it on its true foundations:

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arisen from the honest exertions of those faculties which offenders apply to the production of evil.

.... “ *ante oculos fœde cum .... jaceret*
In terris oppressa.”

To this courage the author has an undoubted claim, for he is its most spirited and decided, as well as its most able and indefatigable, assertor.

In treating of the relation between laws, offences, obligations, and services, the author observes that, prior to law, there were only persons, things, and actions; actions which, though they exist but momentarily, leave behind them a numerous progeny. In early times, we may suppose, as it became evident that certain actions had an invariable evil tendency, a general wish was excited that a stop should be put to them, and that they should be regarded as offences. This wish, clothed with an exterior sign, received the name of *law*; and thus to declare, by a law, that such or such an act was forbidden, was to erect it into a *crime*. To insure to individuals the possession of a given good was to confer on them a *right*; to enact that men should abstain from all acts incompatible with the enjoyment of the right thus bestowed, on certain persons, was to impose on them an *obligation*; and to oblige them to contribute, by a given act, to the enjoyment of their equals, was to subject them to a *service*. The ideas of *law*, *crime*, *rights*, *obligation*, *service*, are ideas which spring up together, which exist together, which are and which continue inseparable.—It is by forming actions into crimes, that the law confers *rights*; and the division of rights is to be referred to that of crimes. The distinction between offences and rights is merely verbal, and between the ideas there is none. To create offences is to create obligations or services, and to create the latter is to create *rights*.

We shall not do justice to our readers, if we do not here repeat those parts of Mr. B.'s former work which relate to the connection between civil and penal law; which he holds to be most intimate. The civil law sets up a right, and the penal fixes the punishment of its violation: civil laws are regulations without penal clauses, or prescribed simple obligations; the civil law may order restitution, but, when a law goes any farther, it is to be considered as penal. Every civil law is a title ending in a penal one; and the latter is the consequence, the continuation, the termination of the former. The two codes, by their nature and object, make only one; and it is solely for the convenience of distribution, that they are considered as separate.

In a code of laws, according to our author, the penal, as dealing more in facts, and as being the most easily understood, should precede the civil; the civil, for similar reasons, preceding the political; and the political preceding those which regulate transactions between nations, here termed international. Under the division of penal, the laws which refer to persons should go before those which regulate property; as, among the civil, those which refer to things should be placed before those which affect rights; and both the penal and the civil should have the priority over those by which process is to be guided, the latter being no more than the method by which law is to be applied.—Mr. B. considers the penal as forming the main part of the fabric of the laws.

In regard to the aid which civil legislation is to derive from religion, we discover in the author's doctrine some leanings to that maxim on which most of the late revolutionary constitutions, from the American to the Consular, have proceeded; viz. that of making the civil constitution independent of and distinct from religion, and regarding the latter as a subject of private concern.—We shall leave Mr. B. in the hands of those who will not fail to animadvert on any heresy of this description. If we do not altogether agree with him, we shall probably accord less with those whose censures he may draw upon him. We feel no disposition to discourage attempts to render civil legislation an instrument capable of maintaining society, and insuring its well-being; because we are convinced that, in such a case, the principle of religion will still have value enough to endear it to man, and that human laws will have imperfections enough to require its legitimate aid. Neither are we apprehensive that its co-operation will be less beneficial, on account of the perfection of the instrument in conjunction with which its influence is to act.

Under the head of elementary political powers, Mr. BENTHAM considers government in regard to the ends of their institution; and he founds on this view of the subject a new classification of their functions, applying to all the forms under which they have appeared, or which they may hereafter assume. If the reader cannot peruse this part of the work without delight and surprize, he will derive not less instruction from its lessons; his views will be expanded, and his stock of matter for useful reflection increased.—Then follow criticisms on the antient constitutional divisions of executive, legislative, and judicial. The author shews that the legislative and the judicial coincide in too many instances to allow them to be considered as distinct, and that the functions of the executive are often no other than what are strictly legislative. It is from the British Constitution that he borrows the facts, whence he draws his conclusions.—Though he exposes the insufficiency of these divisions with a view to the developement of the elementary powers of government, he would not banish them from language, while usage so antient and so general pleads in favour of them.

Mr Bentham contends strenuously for what he calls the integrity of a code of laws. That which is not in the code is no law; and he insists that this should be recognized as an inviolable maxim. He admits that no body of law can embrace individual offences: but he asserts that this inability does not extend to specific heads. He says that improvements in arrangement and method, of which he is so zealous an advocate, would go before events instead of following them; and would control them instead of being the sport of them.

In discanting on the style in which laws are to be drawn up, Mr. B. takes occasion to animadvert on the barbarous diction of the English statutes, with great, but not disproportionate severity. That this barbarism, the sole property of which is to cause inconvenience, and which could only come into use in the total absence of all science and learning,—when grammar, logic, arithmetic, notation, punctuation, and the first rules of composition, were unknown,—should be still retained, must excite the astonishment of the world; while it shews the noxious preponderancy of interested views, and a criminal tameness on the part of the public.

When there shall be a prevalent disposition to legislate on the basis of first principles, and to introduce scientific arrangements and classifications, the revolution will no doubt materially change the face of society. One obvious effect of this alteration will be, the more easy attainment of the knowlege of law; and the superior facility in this way will be readily imagined by those who studied chemistry in the antient and in the modern books. Let the theory of the modern be as imperfect as any one may choose to represent it, yet, having an acknowleged infinite advantage over the antient with respect to its nomenclature and classifications, it introduces the student to a knowlege of the doctrines and facts of the science, in one-third of the time required under the old method. With a code in his hands, such as our author recommends, the student would be a good theoretic lawyer in the course of two or three years: but he would not acquire this character in three times the same period, with the means which its present state furnishes. Indeed, as matters now stand, such an attainment is impracticable, except by those who unite extensive laborious practice with a scientific turn of mind.

In Vol. II. the author treats on the principles of the civil code. Here we know not whether most to admire the importance, solidity, and originality of the matter, or the humane, temperate, and benevolent spirit which pervades the whole. The alarmist may at first be startled on seeing the page so often present the word *equality* to his view: but, when he comes to peruse it, he will find his fears subside, and his mind enlightened and enriched. The disquisition on the bearings which general security and equality have on each other, on the different regards which they severally claim from the legislator, and on the order in which they are to engage his attention, is most ingenious, as well as most friendly to the peace and tranquillity of society. This gentle reformer,—from whom even pensioners and placemen have nothing to apprehend, who is even their strenuous defender and protector,—observes, addressing himself to legislators, that individual interests are the sole real interests: 'Take care of them; never molest them, nor suffer them to be molested; and you will have done enough for the public.' He will have no reforms carried into effect at the expence of individuals, without complete indemnity; and, if we are to introduce changes which clash with present interests and prejudices, he says that we must defer the period at which they are to take place, in order that no private suffering may arise from them.

Mr. BENTHAM displays, from reasoning, and from striking examples deduced from antient history, the pernicious effects of giving a shock to prevailing ideas of property; and it is on this principle that he reprobates the confiscation of property as a legal punishment.

The comparison of the savage and civilized state is not less solid than eloquent; and the elucidation taken from the cultivated and the rude parts of North America is very happy. The sophism by which it has been attempted to justify reforms, without taking into the account the injury suffered by individuals, is here detected in a masterly manner; and in the same style Mr. B. maintains the sacredness of property and public credit. Here, his own country, of which he is more the real friend than the panegyrist, comes in for an eminent share of praise.

In treating of title to property, the author takes no notice of a consideration which we think is of great weight, as it respects the right of first occupancy, and on which Locke has ably descanted; namely, that, if first occupancy should seem a slight circumstance, the acquisition which it gives is a slight gain; that it is no more than a subject for labour that is acquired; and that it is only as improved by the exertions of the occupier, that it becomes property, and possessed of value.

On the subject of succession, the author proposes that the fortunes of such as have no relations in the descending line, or within the degree of parents, or brothers and sisters, should, in the case of intestacy, go to the public use; and that the owner, in such a case, should only have the power of disposing of one half of his fortune. This plan, we think, is far less eligible than the dispositions in this respect which are to be found in most European laws: but our limits will not permit us to assign the reasons on which we ground this opinion. With the above exception, the right of making wills is here treated in a very able manner, and placed in a very interesting and luminous point of view.

When considering *rights* and *obligations*, this dispassionate author demonstrates the iniquity and impolicy of slavery, from its political and moral ill effects. He states fairly the reasons for and against divorce; and the urgency of particular cases seems to force him, as it were unwillingly, to depart from what he appears to regard as the dictates of general policy. The advocate of the partial divorces effected by our spiritual courts, and of the completion given to them, in some cases, by the legislature, would find it difficult (on common principles) to refute the temperate conclusions of Mr. B.; which, on this as on all other important points, are well considered and ably supported.

The author's view of the principles of the penal code certainly reflects great light on the subject. Perfection in first attempts is not to be anticipated: but he has opened a path which we may hope, without being visionary, will lead to the benefit of the human race. It might be expected that, from a philosophical inquiry into the nature of offences, their prevention would be more certain, their frequency of commission reduced, and that we might look to approaches to their utter eradication; if the ambition of rulers would leave wise, benevolent, and paternal magistrates to devote their whole attention to domestic ameliorations, instead of obliging them to be occupied, in so great a degree, in considering modes of external defence.

In regard to what the author says concerning punishments, his remarks on the expediency of a diversity of them most merit attention. Beccaria had observed that, the more certain punishment was rendered, in that proportion its degree might be diminished: but Mr. BENTHAM's manner of stating the principle gives greater scope to the legislator;—the more uncertain the punishment, he says, the greater must it be, and *vice versâ.* He corrects Montesquieu, and shews the necessity of assigning limits to the rule which deduces the punishment from the nature of the crime.—Animadversions too severe cannot be made on the system of English imprisonment, and Mr. B. is not sparing of them. We think, however, that we discover more of the editor than of the author in the observations on our criminal jurisprudence, and on the royal prerogative of granting pardon. The system of this branch we admit to be full of imperfections, which are a reproach to us as a nation: but, in practice, the fault is uniformly on the side of mercy, except in the cases of forgery; and lately, even with regard to that offence, in consequence of a recent law, offenders are not always tried capitally. As to the royal pardon, it is never granted till the matter has been laid before the council, where it is discussed by the first sages of the law, and by persons of the greatest experience and authority in the country. In the recent instance of Governor Wall, it was understood that the judge before whom he was tried attended the privy council; that his case was the sole business of two sittings of that august assembly; and that the first law officer of the crown, assisted by its whole wisdom, lent all his attention to it;—the result was, the refusal of a pardon. The same course is adopted in other cases, in proportion to their importance. Had we judges of less ability, integrity, and humanity, the observations thrown out in this work might be realized; since much depends on the humour of the judge, and this varying from circuit to circuit, sometimes sanguinary, and sometimes inefficient: but the publicity of our courts, the enlightened persons necessarily present at them, and the attendance of the bar, whose spirit is that of honour and fairness, together with the right of appeal where there is a doubt as to the law, are checks on the judge which are not taken into the account in these pages.

In treating of the indirect manner of preventing offences, a field presents itself which affords full scope for the zeal, intelligence, and reasoning powers of Mr. Bentham. This object, he says, is to be effected by controlling the inclinations, the knowlege, and the power of individuals: he confines his methods to the first and last, and condemns all impediments in the way of knowlege as applications worse than the diseases which they would remove. He introduces, as his most powerful instrument in the accomplishment of this great object, what he calls *the logic of the will.*—The heads of the indirect methods here proposed are as follow:

1. To divert the course of dangerous desires, and to generate a turn for useful amusements.

2. So to order things, that a given desire may be gratified without prejudice, or with the least possible.

3. To avoid giving encouragements to crime.

4. To increase the responsibility of persons in proportion as they are more exposed to temptation.

5. To diminish sensibility in regard to the objects tempting.

6. To impress the imagination with the idea of the consequent punishments.

7. To facilitate the attainment of the knowlege of the nature and qualities of offences.

8. To obstruct the prevalence of an offence by making it the interest of many to prevent it.

9. To facilitate the methods of recognizing and discovering offenders.

10. To increase the difficulty of escaping.

11. To lessen the uncertainty in criminal proceedings.

12. In order to prevent principal offences, to prohibit those which are accessary.

These methods are considered as special; those that follow are more general, such as the cultivation of benevolence, that of honour, and the aids to be drawn from education, cultivation, and religion.

Mr. B. advises great solemnity, and the introduction of a sort of theatrical parade, in all cases of the public infliction of punishments.

With regard to the injuries which militate against the point of honour, he says that French jurisprudence is superior to that of other nations, and that the English is eminently defective in this respect. It does not recognize the principle; it estimates a corporeal injury solely by the dimensions of the wound; in the loss of reputation, it considers only the loss of gain which is the consequence of it; money it regards as a remedy for all evils, the palliative of all affronts, and an equivalent for every insult. How long shall our laws remain thus imperfect, and such opprobrium belong to us, which this work will make extensively known?

Mr. B. argues in favour of the law which recognizes and regulates concubinage and public prostitution; and he states that protestant Holland and papal Rome, by their practice, sanction such a mode of proceeding. Here it will be found more easy to raise a clamour against him than to refute him. He adduces very striking historical facts, to shew the ill consequences arising from too great a zeal against duelling and public prostitution; in the one case, frequent assassination was the consequence, and in the other a horrible depravation of domestic manners.

Having descanted with great freedom on the subject of religion, and attacked with potent arms the dæmon of intolerance, he then fairly states the political advantages which are to be derived from religious aid. He manifests a predilection for those divines who have most connected religion with morality, while he seems to hold in little respect the dealers in dogmatism. He def [illegible] liberty of the press, and is the advocate of the subjects' right to assemble and to petition: on the latter head, he derives several of his arguments from the practice of this country.

We are now arrived at that part which forms properly the conclusion of the treatises on legislation: but we find added to them, the plan of a prison on new principles, in its construction, administration, object, and effects; followed by plans for the promulgation of the laws, and the reasons on which they are founded, with a specimen of a comment on one of the heads of criminal law, conformably to the system disclosed in these volumes. The author next considers the precautions to be taken, and the modifications to be used in the case of the transplantation of laws; and he traces the medium to be observed in the introduction of new laws, which shews the extremes of intemperate reform on one hand, and those of timid inactivity, which will risque nothing, on the other. He then sketches the picture of society, when enjoying the benefits of a perfect system of legislation: but we fear that this will be regarded as chimerical, though we see nothing in it that is overcharged or exaggerated, though it be within possibility, and not without support from the analogy of the past. He differs most materially, it must be admitted, from other theorists:—if they pointed to an Utopia, they did not trace the way to it; while he, on the contrary, marks out every step of the course leading to the moderate paradise which he holds out to patriotic and philosophical legislators, and proves it to be within human means to create it. He then marks out the difference between his rational and chastened expectations, and the extravagant unsubstantial descriptions of future human amelioration drawn by some modern optimists.—Having given ample and deserved praise to our constitutional laws, and to those which respect the liberty of the subject, he indulges in invectives against our civil and criminal jurisprudence; which we wish we could with confidence say were more severe than just, more splendid than solid, more eloquent than well founded. We dissent, however, altogether from him respecting the degree of simplicity which it is possible to give to the laws, and the facility in their administration which may be expected as the consequence of it. We have admitted that the science may be rendered of much more easy attainment than it is at present: but we apprehend that, since the concerns of large societies must be connected with much of what is complicated and intricate, its application will require the judgment, the experience, and the address of an order of men set apart for the purpose. Indeed, the patriarchal and domestic plans which seem to please the fancy of Mr. B. excited in us no small surprize; appearing, as they did to us, most completely visionary. Our limits will not permit us to enlarge on points on which he has only slightly touched; nor would it have afforded us any satisfaction to animadvert on a writer to whom we are indebted for such highly valuable instruction, and for opening to our views prospects so full of hope, which, we trust, his future labours will assist to realize.

Art. II. *Histoire Geographique, Politique, et Naturelle, de la Sardaigne,* &c.; *i. e.* The Geographical, Political, and Natural History of Sardinia. By Dominique Albert Azuni, late Senator and Judge in the Commercial and Maritime Court of Nice, Member of the Academies of Sciences at Turin, Naples, Florence, &c. 2 Vols 8vo. Paris, 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 14s. sewed.

That genius, industry, and the arts, should languish on a fair and fertile island, in the south of Europe, will excite little surprize in the minds of those who have reflected on the relations and jealousies of the neighbouring states, on the abuses of delegated authority, and on the blighting influence of papal superstition: but that, in an age addicted to curious inquiry, a portion of territory highly favoured by nature, and once fondly cherished by the mistress of the world, should be condemned to neglect bordering on oblivion, is one of those anomalous appearances which we pretend not to explain on the common principles of reason and philosophy. The name and position of Sardinia are, indeed, familiar to many: but those physical and moral details, which can alone impart interest to name and place, have hitherto been entirely overlooked, or partially consigned to a few rare or expensive volumes, to the archives of office, or to the port-folio of some inquisitive tourist. When, therefore, we applaud that spirit of enterprize which prompts the traveller to explore the wastes of Lapland, or the deserts of Africa, let us not withhold our notice from the history of an European province which is, perhaps, equally unknown to the bulk of mankind.

Emboldened by the commendation of some foreign literary journalists, M. Azuni was induced to give form and extension to an imperfect sketch of the history and condition of his native country. In tracing its antient consequence and splendour, he has had recourse to the writers of Greece and Rome; and, in collecting its subsequent annals, he has culled with judicious discrimination from the crude indigested narratives of *Carvillo*, *Vico*, *Fara*, *Vitalis*, *Mathei*, *Gazzano*, and *Cambiagi*, from a few official papers, and from the manuscript memoirs of *Don Vincent Baccallar*, *Marquis of St. Philip.* The account of the natural history of the island, which occupies the second volume, is derived from the author's personal observations, from the occasional remarks of *Sonnini* and the *Chevalier de Napion*, from a memoir by *Count Balbos*, inserted in the Turin Transactions for 1788—89, and from the writings of *Cetti* and *Gemelli*.

'As I detest flattery, (says M. Azuni,) and dread self-contempt, I shall studiously shun the language of adulation. Placed in a situation above hope or fear, I offer incense to none; nor do I hesitate to name those of the administration whose evil counsels had nearly completed the ruin of the kingdom.—Professing, as I solemnly do, my abhorrence of that celebrity which is purchased by prostituted fawning, I may surely be allowed to be independent and just.

'Simple in my mode of thinking, and faithful in narration, I purpose to tell the truth precisely as I conceive it to exist, without strewing flowers on a subject so serious as the well-being and prosperity of our parent country. Let the whole colouring of these pages flow from my heart, since its dictates and the glory of my fellow-citizens have been my only monitors. *Me patriæ impulit amor.*'

Far, very far be it from us to detract from principles and dispositions which reflect so much credit on the character of the individual who feels and recognizes their sway! Neither will charity suffer us for a moment to believe, that he who depicts in a manly and forcible style the miseries of his country, and who feelingly suggests the obvious means of their removal, is actuated by motives less pure and honourable than those which he so frankly avows. Yet, should he deign to turn his ear to the voice of cold criticism, it might remind him that truth and patriotism are not incompatible with the rules of fine writing; and that a little attention to elegance of composition would neither depreciate his facts, nor check the diffusion of his reflections among a generous and enlightened public. Though we wish not to be deemed fastidious, and would gladly extend our utmost courtesy to the stranger, a sense of duty to the public constrains us to remark that a diction more polished and classical might have, in part, disguised or atoned for occasional deficiencies of *matter*, and for an apparent want of interest in the *manner*. We would not insinuate that M. Azuni's performance is destitute of eloquence: but we must acknowlege that its merits, in point of execution, are unequal; and that the information which it affords falls short, in more than one instance, of our previous calculation. The excellent map prefixed to the first volume, and the author's local opportunities, had led us to expect a minute topographical view of the island which he undertook to delineate. We had expected that, traversing the whole in various directions, he would have noted his observations as he journeyed along; without omitting those traits of manner and little incidents, which, while they mark character, or speak to feeling, enliven the narrative, and fix in the memory the more important truths with which they may happen to be associated. M. Azuni, however, has either not personally surveyed the scenes of his relation, or, suppressing the character of the traveller, and assuming that of the compiler of a gazetteer, he has generalized or frittered away too much of the geographical department of his subject. In vain we look for landscape painting;—the mountains, rivers, woods, and valleys, are thrown into one phlegmatic groupe;—places of comparative importance are slightly mentioned, or passed in silence;—and not a spot consecrated in fable or in song, endeared to the patriot or sacred to pity, extorts from his breast a sentiment or a sigh.

With more scrupulous attention to dates and facts, the author deduces the civil history of Sardinia, from the earliest *authentic* period to the present times. A tedious subjection to the paralyzing yoke of Spain gave rise to many grievances, some of which we shall have occasion to notice in the sequel: but we trust that we shall be excused from reciting the dull and disastrous tale of hostile aggression, defeat, conquest, and rapine, on the part of Carthaginians, Romans, Goths, Vandals, and Saracens; and of the not less unedifying rivalships and interferences of various European states, as they affected the political destinies of an island, whose independence has been uniformly sacrificed to the successful invader, or to the arts of continental diplomacy. Our readers will the more cheerfully acquiesce in our silence on these points, when they are informed that the series of events here recorded is marked by no splendid nor pathetic passage;—by none of those finished portraits, biographical anecdotes, or romantic episodes, which relieve and animate the page of history.

The whole of the fifth chapter might, in our apprehension, be cancelled, without any material injury to the credit of the work; for it leaves the reader in the same uncertainty in which it found him. Aristotle, Pausanias, and vague tradition, had favoured the probable conjecture that Sardinia was first peopled, or, at least, first cultivated, by a colony from Greece: but we are not prepared to concede to M. Azuni that *stronger probability* for which he contends. If it required a whole colony to escort the *mouflon* and *boccamele*, we should not assign a cause less accidental than the migration of a Syrian or Egyptian tribe for the appearance of rams with four and six horns, and of the small breed of asses, so noted for their strength and fleetness. —Again, should we patiently listen to the Norwegian or Scot-

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ih mountaineer, who, from the hospitality which is still ninently practised in his native wilds, would ascribe his orin to the same people who kindly entertained the wandering lysses?—Though we, too, have visited remote districts, hose inhabitants eat barley-bread and flat round cakes, and ho hire females to wail for the departed, we never, from these rcumstances, inferred that their ancestors were Greeks.—ico, we are told, in a note, is exactly λειχω, *Schirtas* is σκιρτῶ, *gbelos*, αγγελος, &c. Must it, then, follow that Sardinia was st planted by a Grecian colony? Parity of reasoning would arrant the assumption of the same origin to most of the untries of Europe, and would sustain the English *lick*, *skip*, *gel*, &c. as evidence of our true classic descent from the ands of the Archipelago. We submit to the author's consiration, whether some notices of the ecclesiastical history of s native island might not, with propriety, be substituted for ch nugatory argumentation.—Though his title does not exessly mention church affairs, their connection with those of e state is in most cases so intimate, that the relation of civil insactions receives some tincture from the complexion of the erarchy, and *vice versâ*. We acknowlege that, to a benevoat mind, a retrospect of church annals may often prove painl and disgusting: but, sometimes, they may furnish examples worth unsullied by the habits of the Romish priesthood, or licate curious symptoms of the state of manners, or of the ogress of the arts, during particular periods. Even when ey commemorate deplorable deviations from the simple instiions and from the tolerant spirit of Christianity, when they hibit melancholy pictures of human errors and human crimes, ey may teach us lessons of caution and wisdom, may excite just abhorrence of persecution, and animate us to the love d practice of philanthropy. M. Azuni, however, dispatches church establishment in two or three short sentences, and rely informs us that Pope Alexander VI. enjoined, and that lius II. executed, the reduction of eighteen dioceses into ee archbishoprics and six bishoprics; that there are eight llegiate churches, with 285 canons and incumbents, and ee other churches to which 68 incumbents are attached; it secular and regular clergy are exempted from taxes; and it many assume the tonsure, on account of this political priege.

In addition to the above strictures, we must remark that, had writer commenced with physical observations on climate d soil, and advanced from mineral to vegetable, from the ter to animal productions, and then treated of the inhabits, their character, history, polity, &c. his arrangement would have better accorded with the obvious gradations of nature; and, in course, with the dictates of sound taste and established criticism.

Having premised thus much, we shall proceed to lay before our readers a few condensed statements and detached passages; and the unaccountable novelty of the subject will justify some extension of our accustomed limits. We beg leave to repeat the term *novelty*, because we are unacquainted with any *printed* accounts of Sardinia in our own language, which deserve attention. Yet is its circumference reckoned 700 Italian miles, its greatest length 175, and its greatest breadth 100. Its surface, watered by two considerable rivers and several subordinate streams, presents a happy mixture of hill and dale; and, in consequence of mild winters and temperate summers, it is decked with flowers and perpetual verdure. A few spots, during the warm months, are incident to the noxious effects of marsh miasmata: but the air is in general dry, and the climate singularly conducive to longevity. The mineral springs and fish-abounding shores of Sardinia have been celebrated from remote antiquity. Of its twelve harbours, the principal and most secure are *Conte*, *Palmas*, *Nova*, and *Cagliari*. In the gulf which communicates with the latter, whole fleets may lie at anchor, and refit in all sorts of weather. The several sea-ports, projecting points of land, and circumjacent islands, are feebly protected by 94 towers; which also serve as signal-posts, and might be easily converted into telegraphic stations.

Though freeholds and feudal tenures are legally recognized, most of the lands, being uninclosed, are treated as common property, established by right or usage. The wastes, attached to their respective municipal districts, are parcelled out, rent-free, by the magistrate, among those individuals who undertake to cultivate them.

'Of the grounds destined to culture, (observes the author,) those which are inclosed are called *Tanche*, and are fenced with a wall or hedge; the open, termed *Vidatone*, have long been divided by ideal boundaries into two or more sections, according to the extent of surface. Of these sections, one is annually allotted to tillage, and the rest abandoned to common pasture.' –

'The Sardinian shepherds, whether proprietors of cattle, or accountable to the owners for half of the profits, roam, with their flocks and domestic hordes, over the uninhabited tracts of the island, regardless of every object but existence, and negligent of all laws but those of their own formation. Around the very temporary huts of their own rearing, they sometimes sow small patches of wheat or barley; they subsist on game and milk, make cheese for sale, and pass the whole of their lives in the country. Each family may be said to constitute a patriarchal tribe, of which the father, encircled by children who love and obey him, is also the priest. Those vices which the corruptions of a city-life make us regard as amiable are, in their society, punished with loss of character and reproach. Hence, among these wandering shepherds, we find individuals whose conduct might be proposed as models for those who have received the advantage of a regular education.'—

The former fertility and population of Sardinia are attested by the concurring evidence of antient geographers and historians. A hundred and fifty thousand of its soldiers perished by the Roman sword; and one-fourth of the inhabitants are supposed to have fallen a sacrifice to the subsequent attacks of barbarians, and to the plague which raged in 1609 and 1652. Since 1721, the population has gradually increased, and it now amounts to half a million. If M. Azuni's data be correct, and we have reason to believe that they are, the island has resources for two millions more.—*Cagliari* contains 35,000 and *Sassari* 30,000 inhabitants. Each of these towns is the seat of an university: but science and literature have hitherto made very slow advances in the island.

From the custom-house returns of 1790, it appears that commodities were exported to the amount of nearly nine millions of Piedmontese livres (about as many shillings), and that the imposts did not exceed two millions.—The only manufactures are those of coarse linens and woollen cloths.—The annual revenue may be moderately estimated at a million and a half of Piedmontese livres.

The Sardinian unites to a constitution uncommonly robust, and to the graces of a neat and fine person, the moral qualities of cheerfulness, patience, and sensibility. Courageous even to temerity, he is firm in his friendship, and implacable in his resentments. His lively imagination prompts him to a love of the marvellous and of song; and hence those frequent effusions of ututored *improvisatores*, who please by their flowing numbers and the ingenuity of their thoughts. The women are remarkable for lively manners and acute perceptions; for fine black eyes, beautiful teeth, elegant limbs, and delicately finished persons. In general, they are prudent, faithful, and constant in their attachments: but they are extremely susceptible of jealousy, and will surmount every obstacle to gratify their revenge on a treacherous lover.

The dances, in which most of the islanders excel from their infancy, are the *Badda pasturina* (shepherd dance), performed by a single couple; and the *Badda tondu* (round dance), in which the men and women, holding each other by the hand, move in a circle, to the sound of the *troubeldas*, a sort of rustic pipe,—or to the village song, chanted by three voices,—or to the extemporaneous lay of the gallant bard, who receives from his mistress the theme of his verse.

'Over a vest of scarlet or white swan's-skin, men in the ordinary ranks of life throw the *collette;* a garment formed of four sheep-skins, well tanned and stitched, fashioned like a very wide sleeveless jacket, reaching halfway down the thighs, and connected, over the breast, by clasps of silver, or other metal, according to the circumstances of the wearer.—A broad leathern girdle, embroidered with silk, binds the *collette* to the middle of the body, and supports a large knife, which is worn on the left side. The breeches, made of *furesi,* (a slight woollen stuff, manufactured in the country,) are *inexpressibly* wide, and untied at the knees, where they terminate: but the legs are covered with spatterdashes of the same stuff, or of black sheep skin.—In some districts, a short loose coat, also of *furesi,* conceals the *collette.* In others, the upper garment is a great coat, reaching to the heels, and provided with a large hood or cowl.—The *mastrucca,* mentioned by Cicero, is still recognized in a bag of white linen for the hair, with a top-piece (*calotte*) of black or dark-brown cloth.

'The costume of the country-women, though less conspicuous, may nevertheless be distinguished on account of the many folds about the waste, and the whalebone stays, open before, and half laced behind. The dexterously plaited shift conceals not the bosom which it affects to cover: nor is it intended that the muslin veil, adjusted with apparent negligence, should cruelly hide fine features and nicely braided hair from the eyes of amiable curiosity.'

The higher ranks dress like the French, and speak Italian: but the country dialects are corruptions of the latter, interlarded with Spanish and Lingua Franca.

With respect to the present system of Sardinian jurisprudence, we regret to observe that it is founded on a quintuple code, in which laws, royal edicts, the mandates of viceroys, and concessions wrested from the latter in times of alarm, have been piled together with wanton accumulation and distressing perplexity. The nobles are not amenable to any of the regular criminal tribunals, nor even to the viceroy, though they should be accused of treason: but they have the privilege of being tried by seven gentlemen commissioners, whose sentences rarely bear hard on the persons or property of the accused. Every favourite of the court, or creature of the viceroy, may, in consideration of a small fee, obtain letters of nobility, and thus enjoy the most shameful immunities; while *corvées,* harsh treatment, and onerous exactions, devolve on the plebeian ranks, perpetuate their poverty, and rivet their oppression. The agents of such of the wealthy landlords as reside in Spain harass the vassals with more than feudal tyranny.—A tax is yearly levied, under pretence of maintaining a fleet of galleys to act against the Barbary corsairs. Such a fleet once existed;

but was suffered to waste away, till the hulks and cordage were exposed to sale. Nay, the very sums accruing from papal indulgences, and destined, under the direction of the Trinitarian monks, for the redemption of Sardinian captives, have been appropriated by the state, in exchange for a delusive stipulation of coast-protection!

Prince Charles Emmanuel of Savoy, and his able and virtuous minister Count Bogino, applied their benevolent cares to the reduction of these political enormities; and the island, under their benign auspices, began to breathe from ages of calamity: but, on their demise, it relapsed into languor and declension. During the late convulsive struggles between France and the coalesced powers, a spirit of discontent, engendered by that debility, intrigue, and venality which characterized every department of the government, had nearly kindled into the flames of civil war; and amid the successes of the insurgents, we discern a moderation of temper and a spirit of conciliation worthy of better fates and better rulers. To these rulers, whoever they may be, we would recommend a serious perusal of the present author's 10th chapter, in which he hints at the *creation* of roads, (there are none in the interior,) and discusses at some length the advantages of a free corn-trade, an equitable scale of taxation, and the revival of agriculture as an object of prime national concern.—With the spirited close of that chapter, we conclude our notice of the first volume:

> 'Confining my observations to the limits which I at first prescribed to them, I shall be happy if I have pointed only to objects of the greatest urgency. Yet this discretion, I am aware, may skreen me neither from the imputation of temerity, nor from the odium of men invested with place and power. Individuals of this description are not to be convinced with impunity, nor will they easily forgive the declaration of humiliating truths.
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> 'Light, however, is their displeasure, when compared with that of orders and bodies of men,—bodies, which, like sluggish machines, creep onward in the precise direction of the first impelling force. The conduct of corporations is determined by the antiquity, not by the wisdom of an established usage: but imprudent is the writer who would question the propriety of their measures; since pride, indolence, obstinacy, and not unfrequently ignorance, will combine in rejecting his generous counsels. He may expect to be taxed with temerity by those who never weighed his arguments, and will be fortunate in very lenient opponents, if he escape with declamatory abuse. I could name countries in which a man may, with more safety, commit essential errors, and even perpetrate crimes, than laugh at any absurdity which can plead the sanction of three hundred years.
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> 'Conscious, then, of the danger to which I expose myself, I make my only appeal to the judgment of impartial readers. May

they pronounce sentence according to that reason which, I trust, has been my guide.

'But where, it may be asked, is your warrant for interfering with the concerns of Sardinia?—That warrant I hold of Nature, who made me a Sardinian, and who endowed me with intelligence to perceive and discuss the peculiar and relative interests of the island. Besides, I have, for some time past, acquired the right of declaring my sentiments, in consequence of more than one unequivocal testimony of disinterested patriotism *;—and the highest, indeed, the only recompense which I covet, would consist in the acquiescence and approbation of my countrymen.'

'Never shall I cease to implore the blessing of heaven on my native land. I pray, especially, that the heavy yoke may hang lighter on the Sardinian peasant; that feudal restraints, vexations, and servitudes may oppress him no more; that freedom and comfort, the parents of agriculture, may dwell among them; that extensive wastes may be converted into productive soil; and that the trade, the shipping, and the national industry, may be no longer fettered by regulations too complex and severe, by the cruel requisitions of fiscal cupidity, and the still more cruel operation of exclusive privileges, with loose and unreasonable modes of taxation.

'Oh, my fellow-citizens! if you are sensible to that train of ills which a defective administration has long entailed on the Sardinian people, if you have virtue left to desire the improvement of the public resources and the prosperity of the state, if your honest hearts can still derive satisfaction from that of your countrymen, if you can hail with transport the return of happiness and joy to the scenes from which misery had banished them,—deign to peruse this chapter with attention,—hear my prayers,—and I shall die contented.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *Lettres de L. B.* LAURAGUAIS *à Madame* ***; *i. e.* Letters from L.B. LAURAGUAIS to Madame ***;—in which are contained Estimates of certain Works, &c. and an Historical Fragment of Memoirs of Louis XV. and Madame *de Chateauroux*, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 250. Paris. 1802. De Boffe, London.

THE most laboured of these letters are those in which are stated the services rendered to the intellectual world by the great Locke. If the country in which the work appears, and the description of persons to whom it is addressed, are considered, we do not know that the undertaking has been superseded: but in our own, at this time of day, we shall not be expected to dwell much on this subject. Locke is still our master in the great outlines of moral inquiry; and his work, in this general view, is still inestimable. It is also

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'* See the epistle prefixed to the first edition of the treatise on the maritime law of Europe, printed at Florence in 1795.'

highly valuable on account of the specimens of chaste language and neat argumentation with which it every where abounds. On particular questions, however, and in detail, the modern man of letters who has studied Berkley, Collins, Law, Hume, Hartley, and the author of the Επεα Πτεροεντα, discovers in the Essay on the Human Understanding, admirable as it is, numerous mistakes, many wrong notions, and false conclusions. The principles inculcated by this great philosopher have certainly been long known and adopted in France: but it does not appear that this branch of knowlege is advanced in that country much beyond the state in which he left it.

The author informs us that, expressing to *Voltaire* his astonishment at the extent of his genius, the philosopher replied, "I am no longer a dupe to myself; I am more indebted to my coffee-pot than to my powers. I drink eighteen or twenty cups, just as other persons drink one or two. There is nothing, perhaps, on which I have spent so much time as on the game of chess; I love it, I am indeed passionately fond of it, and yet Father *Adam*, who is *une bête*, conquers me continually, and shews me no mercy! Every thing has its limits. Why, with regard to me, in the affair of chess, is Father *Adam* the first man in the world? And why am I, with regard to him and that game, the lowest of men? Every thing has its limits." The author seems to think that, but for the philosopher's visit to England, he would not have gone beyond the lines of the drama and lighter poetry; and that it was from that excursion, that he derived the impulse which made him attempt almost every branch of human knowlege.

We have here the following account of the origin of that admirable and interesting production, the travels of the young Anarchasis. The Abbé *Barthelemy* had often regretted that men in general could not find the flowers of literature and philosophy, without laborious researches into the massy compilations of Græyius and Gronovius, into the Memoirs of the Academy, into Brucker and Stanley. He resolved, therefore, to undertake this labour, in order to spare others the necessity of it, and no longer to leave them a good pretext for their ignorance.—It is here justly observed that all the imitations of this work have been contemptible.

M. LAURAGUAIS, who appears alive to all the charms of the Italian muse, tells us that, when a youth, he ventured to state doubts to the Abbé *de Cannaye* respecting the severity of the sentence by which she had been condemned by the great critic of his country: "I will give you the reply," said the Abbé, "which I received from *Boileau* himself, on my addressing questions to him similar to those which you have now put to me."

"*Quand j'ai lu les poëtes Italiens, & votre Tasse, il ne reste dans les oreilles que* dada & dodo: *il me semble voir un enfant à* dada, *demander a sa nourrice de faire* dodo. *C'est insupportable, quand on aime l'harmonie d'Homère & de Virgile.*" Well! continued the Abbé; *Boileau*, thinking this criticism very humorous, endeavoured to prove it just; and this is the whole affair; so you see how we are used."

The historical fragment here ascribed to Madame *de Brancas* appears to us a precious relic; it contains interesting anecdotes and traits of the times; and it throws fresh light on Louis XV. who forms a subject highly interesting, now that he must be regarded as the grand dilapidator of the splendid fortunes of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon.—That much extolled minister, the cardinal *de Fleury*, here makes a sorry figure. He is depicted as an infamous jesuit, who, after having blasted the germs of each good quality in Louis XV., having broken the spring of his mind, having filled his head with prejudices and his heart with distrust, does not scruple, in order to preserve his ascendancy over him, to employ his creatures to seduce the youthful monarch's affections from his queen, and to fix them on a mistress whose temperament was adapted to his views.

This amusing little volume, though without pretensions to literary eminence, proves its author to be a man of taste, not ignorant of letters, and well acquainted with the world. If we often meet with greater depth, we seldom witness a more liberal turn, or more of the spirit of good breeding.

ART. IV. *Le Chateau des Tuileries*, &c. *i. e.* The Castle of the Tuileries, or a Narrative of Events in the Interior of that Palace from the Time of its Construction to the 18th Brumaire of the Year VIII. With Particulars of the Visit of *Lord Bedfort* after the 10th of August 1792, &c. &c. By P. J. A. R. D. E. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s. sewed.

THE events of the revolution bearing a considerable relation to the palace of the Tuileries, we have here an attempt to connect its history with that edifice; and the plan has the effect of giving new interest to tales which have been so often repeated, that they would otherwise have been wearisome.—It must be owned with the exceptions under which such rules must ever be taken, that to a Frenchman his own country, its learning, its language, and its manners, form the whole universe; and that, whenever he launches out beyond this sphere, which he is never backward to do, he falls into the most ridiculous errors. This remark is suggested to us by the absurd and childish manner in which the late Duke of Bedford is here introduced; it is true, indeed, that he only appears as a *dramatis persona:* but, if an English personage were requisite in *getting up* the piece, there were many with whom the author might have made free with less indecency, and who were better adapted to the part. The Frenchman gravely asserts, and refers to authorities, that the Duke really was in Paris at the time at which his scenes represent him as being there, and that he acted there very conformably to the part assigned to him in these fictions: yet it is well known that the Duke was never in Paris during the revolution. Who this person could be, so curious in examining the furniture and toilettes of the Tuileries, we cannot guess; unless it was Mr. Beckford of Fonthill, who, not long ago, was mistaken at Paris for the Duke of Bedford, and announced accordingly in the Journals. If our ingenious lively neighbours will condescend to bring forwards characters that do not belong to the great nation, we would intreat them to condescend to acquaint themselves at least slightly with their characters; to avoid gross and offensive incongruities; and to learn to spell the names of the foreign persons and places of which they treat.

The author's plan leads him to state, much in detail, the dismal story of the sort of life led by the royal family while at the Tuileries.—On the ground floor, looking to the garden, the king breakfasted, and spent his mornings; and one valet, *Durey*, was the only person who had permission to come into this apartment. Sometimes, however, the queen, with whose dressing room it communicated, would enter; and the king, irritated by provocations, often received her harshly. If, when he was in this humour, she introduced any political conversation, he would answer dryly, "my affairs do not regard you, madam; do you only take care of your children:" when she was obliged to withdraw. At other times, the king would order *Durey* to fasten the door on the inside; and when she found this the case, she returned, and never ventured to knock.

Among the papers of the Tuileries, was found a register, in the king's own hand, giving an account of all that he had done since he was fourteen years old. It proved of no value; containing repetitions of the same memoranda, the principal of which were the time of his going to bed, and the time of his rising. There was also found, in the same place, a record of all the letters written by him, drawn up with his own pen, and referring almost entirely to the most petty matters. His ministers, having discovered his bent, directed his attention to objects of little consequence, in order that he might not have leisure for those of greater moment; and this habit had grown so much upon him, that he was incapable of attending to affairs of importance. To refuse a survivorship, or to digest some little plan of economy, he regarded as business. The term *fainéant*, applied by historians to the last Carlovingian Princes, seems not less applicable to the last two monarchs of the Bourbon race.

The minister *Roland* is most severely treated in these pages, as well as his wife, who is accused of having had an intrigue with *Barbaroux*; and the writer says that *Danton* never regarded the revolution in any other light than as a mine, whence a fortune was to be drawn.

The author estimates the persons who fell on the 10th of August at 4,592, of whom 852 died in the defence of the monarch, and the assailants make up the remainder. The massacres of September, he states, consisted of 244 victims at the Carmelites: 180, at the abbaye of St. Germaine; 73 at the cloisters of the Bernardins; 45 at the hospital of the saltpetre works; 85 at the Conciergerie; 214 at the Chatelet; 164 at the hotel de la Force; and 53 at Versailles; in all 1052. The whole of this butchery was consummated in eight days!

This writer has certainly gleaned several facts which were overlooked by his predecessors in the same career, and which serve to elucidate the revolution: but how far his statements are worthy of reliance, we have no means of ascertaining. We can only say that, generally, the work does not wear a questionable appearance, and that it is written in an easy and interesting style.

ART. V. *Voyage dans l'Inde et au Bengale; i. e.* A Voyage to India and to Bengal, in the Years 1789 and 1790. Containing the Description of the *Sechelles* Islands and of *Tricomale*; with Particulars concerning the Character and the industrious Arts of the People of India, &c. Followed by a Voyage in the Red Sea. By L. DEGRANDPRÉ, Officer in the French Marine. With Engravings &c 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 587. Paris. 1801. De Boffe, London. Price 14s. sewed.

IN the Appendix to our 37th volume, we gave an account of M. DEGRANDPRÉ's Voyage to the western coast of Africa, and have now to attend to the other publication which we then announced. The first of the Voyages recorded in the present volumes was made in 1790, though by some inadvertence it is written 1789 in the title-page. The author was at the *Ile* *de France*, with a vessel which he wished to sell: but it was too large and the bottom of too sharp a construction to suit the market at that place, and he determined to go with her to Bengal, where he hoped to find a good purchaser. Motives of economy, with some other reasons, induced him to discharge all his European seamen, and to hire Indians to navigate his vessel; and, as Lascars could not be procured, he was obliged to accommodate himself with 30 natives of Manilla. The inexperience and helplessness of these men gave him much trouble, and occasioned him to miss the *Isle de Bourbon*, where he had purposed to stop in order to procure provisions; and he was obliged to go to the *Isles de Sechelles.*

The author has been so sparing of dates, that neither the time of the year at which he sailed, nor that at which he arrived, is specified in his narrative. He says that the largest of these islands (of which he recommends the chart of M. *Grenier*,) is Mahé, so named after *M. Mahé de la Bourdonnaie*; and that the whole island is a single mountain on which are many peaks, but no valleys worth mention. It is formed of granite; and in some places the naked sides of the peaks, rising perpendicularly, exhibit the pure stone.—The *Sechelles* rest on a bed of sand with which they are all surrounded; and it is remarked that a groupe of small islands thus situated in the middle of the ocean, having regular soundings to a considerable distance, is a particularity not a little surprizing.

M. DEGRANDPRÉ has entered into some length of dissertation on the formation of islands, principally of such as are generated and increase by gradual process: but a communication of greater interest is his account of the attempt to cultivate spices at the *Isle de France*, and at the *Sechelles.* We learn that the French, finding an opportunity of getting plants from the Dutch islands, (the author says, '*Lorsque les Français parvinrent à dérober des épiceries aux Hollandais*,)

'They were carried to the *Isle of France*, and carefully superintended in the Royal garden. Some prosperous years of a well managed and expensive cultivation gave hopes that they would become naturalized to the soil, and young plants were distributed among the inhabitants with the necessary instructions for rearing them: but these fair prospects were destroyed by hurricanes, and the inhabitants became weary of bestowing great care and expence on an object of uncertain and, at best, of distant profit. The progress even in the King's garden was unsatisfactory. The cinnamon trees produced but a thin bark, little unctuous, and much less poignant than that of the *Moluccas.* The cloves languished, and, though the trees continued in a thriving condition, the fruit did not answer expectation. In short, they could only be regarded as objects of curiosity.

'Administration then cast their eyes upon the *Sechelles*, which, better corresponding with the climate of the *Moluccas*, offered probabilities in favour of this culture. Plants were accordingly conveyed there with great secrecy; and, as vessels commonly stopped at the island of *Mahé* to take water and catch turtle, the plants were carried to the other side of the island, in order that they might be more concealed. They were put in the ground at *l'Anse Royal*, and left to the care of nature.

'The success was beyond hope. The cinnamon trees, especially, propagated with such rapidity, that in a short time this whole *canton* was covered in every part where the forest trees did not interrupt their growth. The cloves and nutmegs likewise succeeded, but did not multiply so fast.

'Such was the state of things, when war was declared between France and England in 1778. *M. le Vicomte de Souillac*, governor of the isles *de France* and *Bourbon* and their dependencies, actuated by his patriotism, took the necessary precautions for preventing the enemy from gaining possession of the precious fruit of so much labour, patience, and expence: but the person trusted with the execution of his orders was deficient in the intelligence requisite for so important a commission. A small military establishment was usually kept on the island: but, at the beginning of the war, the troops were withdrawn, from fear of their falling into the hands of the enemy, and only an overseer was left with some blacks. The orders given were to have every preparation in constant readiness for setting fire to the trees, as soon as the enemy should make any attempt to become master of the island. Unfortunately, a large French ship from *Madagascar* made for Mahé, to get a supply of water. The overseer mistook her for an enemy: he believed himself already attacked; and, fearing that he should not have time to execute his instructions, he precipitately set fire to the spice trees, and destroyed the whole.

'Thus perished the hopes of the French Government! The birds, however, generally fond of the berries of the spices, had carried away and let fall a great quantity in the woods of the interior of the island; and at the Peace of 1783, they were found to have produced new plants. They have been treated with care, and at the period at which I visited the islands (1790), the cinnamon, clove, and nutmeg trees were in a very good state, though in a small quantity. It is beyond doubt that France may cultivate all the spices with success on the *Sechelles* islands; and notwithstanding their small extent, they are capable of furnishing a quantity sufficient for the consumption of the Republic: but, since the experiments that have been made at *Cayenne*, it seems that the government have lost sight of the project of naturalizing them on these islands.'

These orders for destroying the spices, says the author, were dictated by patriotism: if so, certainly by a blind and misguided patriotism. On principles of general benefit, the destruction of them was a bad action; and on motives of national benefit, it was a mistaken one. Supposing that the trees at *Mahé* had fallen uninjured into the possession of any other power, France would still have retained some share of the benefit, by being supplied with spices at a rate cheapened by the additional quantity in the world, and by a monopoly no longer remaining in the power of one country. Another consideration, which might have restrained *M. de Souillac*, was the chance of restitution at the return of peace.

The abundance of cocoa-nuts at the *Sechelles* appears from the following incident:—Some of the author's seamen having taken the ship's boat to a plantation, which they robbed of 3000 cocoa-nuts, the owner estimated the damage at 30 piastres, and was satisfied with that sum for compensation.—The land-turtle here are known to have travelled from island to island; some that have been marked, and set at liberty, having been retaken at another island a league distant.

The author next stopped at *Pondicherry*; which leads him into political and commercial reflections respecting the French interest in India. With these considerations we shall not interfere; neither shall we detain our readers with an account of his conjectures on the early state of the globe anterior to any history. When he relates what he has himself seen, we read with pleasure.

The domestic establishment of a moderately rich European in India, with his *suite* of servants and attendants of various denominations, their respective employments, and their uselessness, are described with humour, and, we believe, with correctness. M. Degrandpré has given some short remarks on the different *casts* among the inhabitants of India, and on their religious customs, &c. He also describes the feats of their *(jongleurs)* conjurers, and particularly their manner of enchanting or charming the snake. Among these reptiles, in India, is a species distinguished by the name of the *house snake*, which is not in the least degree dangerous, nor irascible:

> 'It finds its way into the cradles of infants, and never commits mischief: yet, as we naturally feel a degree of horror at the discovery of a snake, and cannot, at the first glance, be certain that it is not of the *capella* species, as soon as one is seen, the first endeavour is to destroy it: but, if it cannot be caught, the custom is to send for the enchanter.
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> 'The enchanter arrives laden with baskets, in some of which are confined a great many snakes of different kinds. His legs are furnished with rings, which play freely round his ankles, and are so contrived, that, at every stamp of the conjurer's feet, they produce a noise similar to that of a pan struck with hammers. He is likewise provided with an instrument which is a kind of bagpipe drone; the bag is pressed under the arm, and the sound which it yields is so

strong, that it stupifies the snake, who feels an irresistible inclination to sleep.

'After having played to them an overture of his *music*, the snakes in the baskets are uncovered, and the operator continues near them, stamping occasionally with his foot, the sooner to complete their dizziness. The eye of the snake is observed to grow dull, and, in a short time, by the reeling balancings of his body, he has all the air of dancing to the music.

'The snake which they wish to decoy is attracted by the sound, and fails not to quit his retreat: the sight of his fellow creatures decides his conduct, he hastens to range himself among them, and soon shares in their drowsy intoxication. The enchanter then puts a basket over the head of the new comer, and the society is increased by an additional member.'

The author remarks that rice is the principal object of culture in India. The small quantity of corn that is grown is destined for the use of Europeans:

'All the Indians, including even the Portuguese cast, make rice their principal food, by which means they have but little grain to clear of husks, and have no occasion for mills. Wind-mills might with ease be constructed, but it is fortunate that they are not wanted; for the calms at one time of the year would keep them inactive, and at others, the monsoons and hurricanes would destroy them. As to water-mills, the country is so flat, and the current of the streams is so gentle, that there would be great difficulty in giving the waters sufficient fall to keep the wheels in motion.

'They reduce grain (the quantity not being considerable) into flour with hand-mills. The population in India is so great, and the occupations of industry are so few, that labour is cheap, and the custom of performing every operation without the aid of machines is no inconvenience.'

The want of cables obliged the voyager to stop at Madras; and he gives a short account of a cotton plantation formed two leagues to the north of that settlement by Mr. Popham, which did not promise to compensate the pains and expence of its establishment. He relates the following curious attempt of the late *M. de Suffrein*, the celebrated French naval commander, to transplant the Indian art of manufacturing cotton into Europe:

'The skill of the Indians in spinning is well known, and is proved by the fine work that comes from their hands. Cotton is spun so fine, that the contact of the air only will suffice to break it; and in the working, the vapour of boiling water is used, which, moistening the thread, renders it more pliable and less apt to break than when it is dry.

'Struck with their address, *M. de Suffrein* engaged many families to go with him to Europe, wishing to make a colony on the island of Malta for the purpose of teaching the inhabitants of that settlement the process of the Indians: but this enterprize failed of success. The Indian manufacturers, when removed to a strange climate, and among people whose manners were perfectly new to them, thought only of returning to their native country, and scarcely the remembrance of their visit now exists at *Malta*.'

In the passage to *Bengal*, remarks are made on the navigation and pilotage into the Ganges. There are parts on the banks of that river little cultivated and thinly peopled, which are much infested by *tygers*; and the author was witness to an instance of their ferocity:

'In sailing up the Ganges, it is customary for ships to hire boats to attend them, to assist in the evolutions, carry out anchors, &c. and my ship, being large, had twelve of these boats. When she lay at anchor a little above Kedjeree, so many boats hanging to her stern were thought to make too great a strain on the cable: the pilot therefore ordered that the boats should quit their hold, and dispose themselves along the banks of the river till the strength of the tide was spent. Unfortunately for them, the people perceived some dead branches of trees on the shore, and firing was an article much wanted in Calcutta; they therefore quickly landed, and began to cut up the wood, and to load their boats. They were not above 300 yards from the ship; and scarcely had they commenced their labour, when we saw them leave off and run towards the water-side with all the marks of the greatest terror. It was not without cause; for they were pursued by a tyger as large as a common-sized calf; and we saw him dart from the wood and seize the hindmost man, whom he carried off instantly, without even the least shew of resistance being made by any one to oppose the fury of the animal. The brother of the unfortunate man was the only one who appeared afflicted, and did not again leave the boat: the others soon returned to renew their work, persuaded that, as the tyger had *made his market*, there was no longer any danger.

'Much of these grounds has been lately cleared for the cultivation of sugar;—a work which has cost the life of many men; and, which is most extraordinary, when attacked by the tygers, the Indians, though sometimes 500 of them are working together, never think of defending themselves. They believe that the animal will take but one, and be satisfied without returning for a second. He is no sooner perceived, therefore, than each man immediately puts all his trust in the agility of his legs; and *tant pis pour le moins alerte*:—the tyger carries off his man, and the rest return to their occupation.'

In committing these ravages, not a single tyger lost his life, until some armed Europeans were sent to direct and protect the workmen.

Near *Fulta*, the author received a shock from the unexpected sight of a monster little less terrible; an enormous serpent, crossing the path before him as he was walking through a wood. 'Its length (says he) was such, that neither his head nor his tail were visible, being hidden in the thicket on each side of the path, which was nearly three feet wide. The monster was brown, crawled along very gently, and appeared to me to be about the thickness of an 18 inch cable.'—(18 inches in circumference.) M. DEGRANDPRÉ had approached so near before he saw the animal, that, as the best means of safety, he leaped over it, and took to his heels.

A plan is given of the citadel (Fort William) at Calcutta: also views of the road where the shipping anchor, and of part of the public buildings of this city, 'not merely the finest in Asia, but one of the finest in the world.' The luxury and magnificence of this place have afforded the author much subject for description. Of the equipages and modes of travelling, he says,

> 'People are carried here in palanquins, as on the coast of the peninsula of India: but, besides the palanquin, *Calcutta* swarms with equipages of all kinds. Coaches, whiskies, phaetons, make every evening a racket equal to that which prevails in a large European city.—The English have begun to improve the breed of horses in Bengal: they have crossed those of Persia with English stallions; and, to excite emulation, have established race-courses like those at Epsom and Newmarket. In 1794, I saw a horse which had been brought from England run against a fine Persian animal of the true race breed: but the former conquered, and gained all the betts, to the great delight of his countrymen, who cried out with transport, "*Old England for ever.*" The English horse had been disembarked from a long voyage only eight days.
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> 'Notwithstanding the number of equipages in Calcutta, they are not used for travelling; almost all the journeys being performed by water. Bengal, indeed, is so much intersected by canals and rivers, that boats can go to almost every place. The rich make use of vessels which are called *bararas*; and nothing can exceed the elegance and convenience of these little ships: they contain apartments like those of a house, and are followed by one of a larger size, which serves for kitchen and offices. By these means, they travel more commodiously than in any other part of the world, and do not undergo more fatigue than if they were at home.'

The buildings, markets, &c. are next described. 'Contiguous to Calcutta, on its north side, is the Black Town [so called because the inhabitants are nearly all natives]. It is immense, and contains a population which, when I was last there, was estimated at 600,000 Indians.'

The author has entered into a short dissertation on the *cast* of Bramins, and their sacred books and language; principally with the view of expressing his scepticism concerning the communications which have been made by Europeans from the Sanscrit. He denies that any knowlege of that sacred language has been gained by Europeans; then professes his belief that the translations which they have given are authentic; then argues on the impossibility that they should be so; and again believes and disbelieves,

believes, with strange fluctuation of opinion, and some degree of levity.

'The facility (he says) with which the Bramins apprehend every thing is wonderful. They all speak and write the French, English, Portuguese, Moor, Malabar, and their own sacred language, which no one understands who is not of their cast. Some modern authors, among the English especially, have made known to us passages from their sacred books :'——'I respect the profound learning of these authors, and do justice to their integrity ; and I believe, since they say it, that these translations are authentic, or, at least, that they conceived them to be such.'——'God forbid that I should wish to throw doubts on the works which they have given to us.'——'The Bramins are not communicative ; and it is a point of religion with them to keep from the rest of the world the knowlege of their language and of their books.'——'Some travellers even are said to have perfectly learnt the Sanscrit language ; and this fact is so well known that I ought to believe it, and, in fact, do believe it,—although it is possible that, in order to escape from the importunities of curiosity, the Bramins might agree among themselves to be communicative on indifferent subjects, that they might be left undisturbed in others.'

The Sanscrit language has probably been secured so long to the exclusive possession of the Bramins, as much by its difficulty and the little use to which it could be applied by individuals of any other cast, as by the precepts of their religion ; and we do not see much cause for wonder, when at length curiosity is sufficiently interested to make endeavours to penetrate into its mysteries, that, among the many millions with whom this secret has been intrusted, some should be found not proof against temptation and importunity. Our voyager *seems* to think, that some indifferent communications may have been made ; and surely, if the truth of any part of the European interpretations be allowed, a probability of the remainder must be inferred. In all other written languages, it has been found that, a small part being acquired, a road is opened by which diligence and penetration, without other guides, may arrive at greater acquisitions.

The following account is given of an excellent and benevolent institution, the orphan-school at Calcutta :

'The greater number of persons who grow rich in the service of the Company are among the military class : but their fortunes are less rapidly made and less considerable than those of the civil officers. They are more apt to marry Indian women, and to settle in the country ; and children of these marriages are frequently left without provision, the fortune of the father having been destroyed by some accident, or perhaps having consisted only in his appointments. The Company have, therefore, taken upon them the charge of these children ; and they have founded near Calcutta an establishment most honourable to humanity. The legitimate children of their servants are there received; and an education is given to them in which useful talents are cultivated: the boys are afterward placed according to the dispositions which appear in them; provision is made for the girls, and some are even sent, at the expence of the establishment, to be educated in Europe. The order and decency which reign in this house have acquired the esteem of all who are acquainted with the institution.'

The author remarks, concerning the children in general, produced by the marriages of Englishmen with Indian women at Bengal, that they are scarcely professors of any religion, but have an inclination to prefer that of the church of England. They regard themselves as English: but the government always employs them in the interior: they marry women of colour, and their posterity become black under English names. 'This is wise policy in the Company, to encourage a population of its own. Their power now rests on defenders who are not English: they feel it, but it is an evil which they know not how to prevent. The slow hand of time, however, may apply the remedy. It is necessary to have the patience to overcome first the prejudices which deter Europeans from marrying with Indians, and then to encourage and to prepare by that means a race which, deriving its origin from England, will feel towards her a national attachment.'

We have given the more room to the author's remarks on Bengal, because it is the part of his work in which we believe many of our readers will take most interest. We are, in consequence, however, necessitated to hasten through the remainder.—M. DEGRANDPRÉ sold his ship, and employed the money in freighting another vessel with a cargo of rice for the coast of Malabar, which was said to be suffering under a scarcity. The commander of this vessel, on some quarrel with his owner, was dismissed; and the author undertook the office, embarking in the double capacity of owner of the cargo and commander of the ship. This adventure seems to have been commenced under the influence of some unlucky power. After a variety of unfortunate and vexatious accidents, the ship arrived at Cochin; and a good price not being offered at that place for the cargo, the Captain was on the point of sailing for Surat, when another vessel arrived at Cochin, the master of which assured him that there was no longer a scarcity in that part of India: but that there was a great demand in Arabia, particularly at Mocha. On the intelligence thus communicated, he determined to sail for Mocha: but 'it afterward appeared,' says the writer 'that what he told me was a fabrication designed to free himself from competition; for he was himself going to purchase a cargo of rice to carry to Surat, where famine actually raged. I gave credit to his report, and departed immediately for Mocha.' Thus, for the sake of obtaining by fraudulent means a little mercantile advantage, a country which was in a state of extreme distress was deprived of succour, the relief intended for her intercepted, and, in all probability, hundreds of lives sacrificed. We cannot help feeling dissatisfaction that, in the relation of so villainous and cruel a transaction, the name of the commander from whom the false intelligence was received, as well as that of his vessel, has been omitted.

The author has noticed several particulars of his navigation to the Red-sea, and described the road for shipping at Mocha: but for his account of the town of Mocha, of the customs and characters of the Arabians, &c. we must refer our readers to the work itself: the perusal of which, they may conclude from the preceding account, will not be unattended with information and amusement.

Art. VI. *Description Anatomique d'un Elephant mâle*, &c; *i. e.* An Anatomical Description of a male Elephant. By Peter Camper, Professor of Medicine, Anatomy, and Surgery, at the Atheneum of Amsterdam, &c. &c. Published by his Son, *A. G. Camper*, Member of the Natural History Society at Berlin, &c. &c. With 20 Plates. Folio. 108 Pages. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 12s. 6d.

It is much to be lamented that the learned Professor Camper, whose attention was so long directed to the anatomy of a most curious and interesting animal, was not allowed to present to the world the result of his own labours. The dissection of which this work gives an account was performed by him on a young elephant, during the winter of the year 1774. Many causes, but more particularly the want of artists, prevented him from being able to take any steps for the publication of his observations and drawings till the year 1786: but this delay gave him an opportunity of improving his knowlege on the subject, by the examination of elephants of both sexes, in several countries which he visited. In the year 1789, the plates were completed; and he was occupied in preparing his work for the press, when a violent indisposition attacked him, which soon terminated in death; and he had time only to complete a detailed explanation of the plates, which now appears without alteration. The other parts of the work have been judiciously selected by the editor from the manuscripts of his father, and from such other publications as he had it in his power to consult. They contain a general account of the external form and the internal structure of elephants, together with some observations on their native country, and on the characters of their different species.

As an anatomical description scarcely admits of analysis, we must content ourselves with noticing some of the more striking peculiarities, only, of this singular quadruped.—We may also refer the reader to Mr. Corse's two papers on this subject, in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Parts 1 & 2 for 1799; or to M. Rev. Vols. 30. N. S. p. 149. and Vol. 31. p. 232.

The gall bladder is within the coats of the duodedum, and it is divided by three orbicular valves into four cells, which communicate with each other, and receive both the bile and the pancreatic juice. There is therefore only one duct, the hepatic, belonging to the liver. The bile seemed to Professor CAMPER to suffer very little change, either in its colour or thickness, by being detained in the gall bladder. The upper orifice of the stomach is seated at about the middle of the upper surface of that organ; and there is, consequently, in the left side, a considerable cul de sac, the internal coat of which is raised into a number of transverse valves, of about an inch in height.

The Professor was not able to discover any lacrymal gland. He describes the *carunculæ lacrymales:* but the lacrymal sac and duct, as well as the *puncta lacrymalia,* were wanting.

M. CAMPER has remarked, in the temple of this animal, a gland common to both sexes, with an opening from it; which, he says, has been seen to pour out an unctuous fluid *during the rutting season:* but, as far as Mr. Corse's observations went, (see papers already cited,) by whom this gland was also noticed, the discharge had no connection with the particular period to which the Professor alludes.

The structure of the cranium is admirably adapted to afford a sufficient extent of surface for the insertion of muscles, without unnecessarily increasing its weight. We shall give a translation of the editor's account of this piece of mechanism:

'In order to include the *encephalon* within proper bounds, and to allow a sufficient space for the insertion of muscles without loading the head with a weight of osseous matter, the tables are separated from each other, by a great number of bony partitions, prolonged to the distance of several inches. The intervals, filled by an infinity of little cells more or less spacious, communicate with the throat by means of the eustachian tube, and are charged with air, instead of blood or marrow, which are generally found in the diplöe of the mammalia. *Perrault, Blair,* and *Daubenton,* have remarked this structure in the elephant, boar, and other quadrupeds: but M. CAMPER was the first to notice its analogy with the structure of the cranium in birds. The ostrich, and the eagle, but above all the owl tribe, particularly the screech-owl, have the tables of the skull separated by numerous cells, perfectly similar to those which distinguish the elephant. The atmospheric air enters them in the same way; and this admirable mechanism, which birds particularly require to diminish the weight of their bones, was necessary to the elephant, in order to lighten its head, which would have otherwise been much more heavy than that of any other quadruped.'

With regard to the internal parts of the head, the *cerebellum* does not lie under but behind the *cerebrum*; the *tentorium cerebelli* is therefore vertical.

Several differences have been observed by naturalists, as existing between the elephants of Africa and those of Asia; and among them, one of universal application; viz. that both sexes of the former have long tusks, while, in the latter, those of the females are invariably short. M. CAMPER has been able to ascertain another distinction between them, from the appearance of the crown of their grinding teeth. 'It consists,' says he, 'in the greater number of plates in the Asiatic species, in their form being more regular, and their undulations nearly parallel; while those of the elephant of Africa are more irregular, less numerous, and in some degree of a rhomboidal figure.'

Among the large and numerous plates accompanying this volume, are some illustrative of this subject of the teeth, which are very similar to two delineations given by Mr. Corse in the Phil. Trans. *loc. cit.*

ART. VII. *Lettre de* CHARLES VILLERS, &c. *i. e.* A Letter from CHARLES VILLERS to *George Cuvier*, of the National Institute of France, on a new Theory of the Brain by Dr. *Gall*, in which that Viscus is considered as the immediate Organ of the Moral Faculties. 8vo. 84 Pages. Metz. 1802. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 2s. 6d.

THE nature of the connection, which exists between the mind and the body, is one of those obscure subjects on which much time, attention, and ability, have been bestowed with little success. This, indeed, is not surprising, when we consider that philosophers have not yet decided even in what part of the body the unknown power which actuates our frame has its residence. By some, it was supposed to exist in the stomach; while others, and those the most numerous, referred it to the head, where various situations have been allotted to it, from the pineal gland, to the halitùs which moistens the ventricles.

The publication, which we now announce to our readers relates to a new doctrine on this question, lately the object of much conversation on the continent; in which it is supposed that the principle of life and the faculties of the mind exist in the brain, but, instead of being accumulated, as was formerly imagined, in a particular spot, occupy different parts of this viscus.

The origin of vital force is supposed to exist in the *medulla oblongata*, as being the most internal and protected part of the *encephalon*. The magnitude of this body, and of the occipital hole through which it passes out of the head, is considered as indicating the quantity of the vital principle; and it is affirmed that abundant proof of the truth of this observation may be derived from comparing the heads of cats and badgers, which are remarkably tenacious of life, with those of animals which are less so. The intellectual powers and moral faculties have all, according to this doctrine, a corresponding elevation on a particular part of the brain; and this produces a proportionate rising in the skull itself, which, we are told, can in general be readily determined by the eye or the finger.—We deem it unnecessary to describe the particular situation of all the organs which are said to be detected in this manner: but we shall give our readers an enumeration of them, premising that the seat of some one is in almost every part of the surface of the brain. They are as follow: The organ of vital power; of generative power; of susceptibility or irritability; of pure and disinterested love, friendship, fidelity, and sociableness; of courage; of cunning; of disposition to steal; of circumspection; of memory of things; of memory of numbers; of local, nominal, verbal, and grammatical memory; of musical talent; of arts of design; of mechanical arts; of metaphysics; of goodness and mildness; of wisdom and wit; of observation; of generosity; of penetration; of imagination; of religious disposition; of haughtiness, ambition, and vain glory; of perseverance and firmness.——

From the account of the reporter, this visionary doctrine seems to have occasioned so much sensation in the metropolis of Germany, that it was at last interdicted by the government, from its being supposed to favour materialism. The following quotation will shew the extent to which the Doctor's inquiries were carried, and the ardour with which they were prosecuted:

'There was a time at which every one in Vienna trembled for his head, and feared lest it should be put in requisition to enrich the cabinet of Dr. *Gall;* who made it known that he wished particularly for the heads of such as were distinguished for great qualities or brilliant talents, which redoubled the prevailing terror. ' Too many people were ready to believe themselves the objects of the Doctor's attention, and to imagine that their heads were coveted by him, as very important to the success of his experiments. Many humorous anecdotes are mentioned on this subject; and among them is one of the old man M. *Denis*, the emperor's librarian, who inserted in his will an express clause, to save his head from the greedy knife of Dr. *Gall.* In spite, however, of so many fears and precautions, the Doctor has not wanted materials, but has been able to collect a considerable number of heads, among which are some that have been illustrious, such as that of the brave Marshall Wurmser. He is in possession also of the skulls of poets, fools, robbers, and people of every description; and he has added to these, the heads of such animals as he could procure which were suited to his purpose, particularly those whose character and manners are of the most active kind. He is scrupulously informed of the history, propensities, habits, passions, vices, and virtues, of all those individuals, whether of the human or brute creation, and has drawn from them some very curious and striking deductions.'

The learned Doctor, to whom we are indebted for this brilliant display of persevering industry, does not judge it necessary to extend his researches to any other part of the body than the head, for the seat of life, intellect, and disposition. He and the author of the pamphlet before us are of opinion that the internal evidence, which every one possesses in his own mind, is a sufficient proof that these qualities are to be sought only in the head. We have often, however, heard of feelings which are referred by the greater number of mankind to the heart; and therefore if consciousness is to determine the question, we should not be surprized if attempts were soon made by some enterprising philosophers, to complete our knowlege of the mind by an accurate examination of that part of the body.

In his introductory observations, M. VILLERS mentions that he has heard of parts of the brain being lost without occasioning the death of the animal; from which he infers that the brain is not immediately necessary to animal life, but is destined to serve as the organ of understanding, feeling, thought, and will. If he had been acquainted, however, with facts which are familiar to most well informed medical men, he would have known that nearly all the parts of the brain have been, at different times, destroyed, by diseases and injuries of various kinds, without the loss of any of those powers or faculties, which, according to his favourite hypothesis, are implanted in them.

The author takes frequent occasion to compliment the literati of his own country, by speculating on the eminences which might be expected on different parts of their heads, corresponding with the ideas formed by him of their genius and acquirements. We may add, too, that he does not neglect the opportunities, which the chapters on courage and perseverance afford him, to conclude that the first consul is pre-eminently endowed with the elevations which indicate the existence of those faculties in an extraordinary degree.

Four sketches are given, presenting different views of the skull, with references annexed.

Art. VIII. *Etat Commercial de la France*, &c. *i. e.* The Commercial State of France, at the Commencement of the nineteenth Century; or a Treatise on French Commerce, its former Errors, and the Amelioration of which it is susceptible. By J. Blanc de Volx. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 15s.

On a former occasion *, we have made respectable mention of the labours of this intelligent writer, and he now again calls for our notice and our commendation. In the introductory part of the work before us, he shews himself the able and zealous advocate of commerce; eloquently describing its beneficial effects on society at large, enumerating its advantages as they respect those particular communities which cultivate and cherish it, and satisfactorily refuting the reasonings of those who would discountenance it, on account of the evils and vices inseparable from it in certain stages.

Speaking of the revival of commerce in modern times, he admits that France has been one of the last European states, which recognized its importance and sought its benefits.

Respecting the three colonial settlements with which the English commenced their commercial career, namely, Jamaica, Tangier, and Bombay; he says that these places, constituting opposite points of the globe, and so remote from the parent country, seem to announce to mankind that their happy owners were destined to rule the seas which embraced them, to hold the universe in chains of a new kind, and to impose on men and the elements a yoke till that time unknown. It is the practice, however, of all the French publicists to deal in invectives against British commerce; and the present writer, though more temperate and fair on this subject than most of his countrymen, cannot refrain from similar declamation. We wish that he had dealt less in general accusations, and that his charges had been more specific, for we cannot discover where our offence lies. If we are accused of monopolizing commerce, and of having possessed ourselves of a greater portion of it than falls to our share; is not all this the natural and inevitable consequence of our superior commercial position, capital, experience, and probity? If so, in what are we censurable? If we enrich ourselves, do we not at the same time benefit other nations? If any branch of our commerce was cut off, would not some country be the poorer, and would any one become more rich? If the case stand thus, and if any nation envy us our commercial greatness, the road is as open to them as it was to us, and let them enter it in fair competition.—If regard may be paid to this author, who writes with great ability, it would appear (as an illustrious senator has intimated) that the only rivalship which France seeks with us is that of commerce; and we shall give him the greater credit, if he be founded, when he says that *commerce alone* can enable France to preserve the preponderancy which she has obtained in Europe by her late victories and acquisitions; since the accession of territory, he contends, will fall far short of it. Dwelling on the dreadful state to which the commerce of France is fallen, and endeavouring to console his countrymen, M. De Volx proceeds to give us farther information with regard to this notion of commercial rivalry. He says; '*Sully* after the league, *Colbert* after the barricades, and the *fronde*, effaced all our misfortunes; and shall we expect less from the hero whose first service has been to reconcile France with Europe and with herself, who has charged himself with the destiny of a great people, and who will become its second providence?' All this goes to confirm the idea already mentioned, as suggested by a great public character; which was heard with so much satisfaction, and which failed to gain belief only because people thought that what was so desirable could not be true.

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* See Appendix to M. Rev. vol. xxxv. N. S.

On the subject of money, and that of banks, the author introduces much abstract discussion, into which many readers will not be very desirous of following him. Under the head of agriculture, his doctrines correspond with those on which are founded our old corn laws, and the measures lately recommended by Dr. Anderson.

In treating on manufactures, M. De Volx shews himself, in a great degree, master of the system by which those of this country have reached their present high pre-eminence; and the contrast which he draws between this system, and that which has been pursued by France, does credit both to his talents and his impartiality. He also sketches, much in detail, the measures to be adopted in order to revive French manufactures. He complains of the slight attention given to this subject and to commerce by the government, and inveighs loudly against the disproportionate regard paid by it to the *fêtes*, the theatres, and the fine arts; which, he says, should appear in the eye of a state as objects very secondary to the former. Indignant at the extravagant favour shewn to matters comparatively frivolous, he exclaims; ‘ Alas! shall this amiable levity, so long our reproach, be still our heritage? Have not experience and misfortune been able to mellow us, to render us prudent and sage? Shall we always think more of show than of substance, and value trivial gratifications above the productions of nature? Alas! let us shake off a fatal error; the French people ought no longer to resemble the Romans in the days of Lucullus, who required only bread and public exhibitions. Let us occupy ourselves, for it is high time, with the true solid enjoyments which constitute the prosperity of nations, and which alone insure their happiness and their power.’—The history which he gives of the decline of the French commerce in the Levant, and of the preponderance gained there by the English and the German, forms a very entertaining part of these pages. He also manifests much ingenuity in forming the regulations of police, to which manufactures for exportation should be subject: a matter extremely worthy of the attention of all commercial states, and more particularly of those which are young in the career.

Some admirable observations, deserving the particular consideration of the present chief magistrate of France, are made by this author, on the civil and political state in which a nation must be placed, before it can succeed; and it is from this quarter, we believe, that the most serious difficulties in the way of commerce will arise. He lays it down that the articles of exportation should be those to which strangers give a preference; and that such exports should not be subjected to too heavy a duty: greediness of which kind, he says, lost to France a great part of the sale of her wines. He recommends regulations to be adopted in the nature of our navigation acts; and he dilates, much at length, on the necessity of a powerful military marine, as being in all cases indispensable in a commercial state but more particularly necessary in these times, he says, in order to protect the French commerce, and commerce in general, against the monopoly and oppressions of the English. He next enumerates the different branches of foreign commerce to which France should attend; and he is aware of all the importance of the traffic in the North Seas, as being the school in which are formed the best seamen. He states the strong basis on which our trade with Russia stands, but he recommends competition; and, without assigning any satisfactory methods by which the British are to be supplanted, he mentions some fanciful grounds of preference, which, he thinks, will induce the government of that great country to change their commercial relations. The English, he says, buy at a very small price, and sell at an enormous profit; and the Emperor, he tells us, will probably see this in its proper light. The accusation, however, falls to the ground the moment it is recollected that, in Russia, the English pay ready money for whatever they import thence, and give very long credit for what they export thither. This is the mode in which Russia carries on its traffic with England; doubtless, a disadvantageous plan, but which its poverty renders necessary; and the sole crime of which the English are guilty is that, by means of their capital, they can trade with the Russians in the only way in which that nation is able to carry on any trade.

M. DE VOLX holds out bright prospects to his countrymen from a revival of the Levant trade, from the free navigation of the Black Sea, from the commerce with the Barbary coasts, and with the African settlements. Allowed to navigate the Black Sea, he points out the road by which commercial intercourse may be carried on with Persia, and the nations bordering on the Caspian. Most important new relations of traffic with Russia here present themselves. The commodities of little Poland, one of the richest tracts of land in the world, consisting of corn, the materials for shipping, salt provisions, various metals, &c. which now have no other outlet than Dantzic, or some one of the ports of the Baltic, will be conveyed by the Bog and the Dnieper to Cherson, by the Dniester to Akerman, and conveyed by French traders to Marseilles and Toulon; and some of these articles, we are told, will be of the utmost importance to the docks of the latter place. Various other speculations are proposed, into which our limits will not permit us to follow him.

The author advises that the former restrictions on the Levant trade should be abolished; and that the natives should be allowed to transport their commodities in their own shipping to Marseilles, which he suggests should be made a free port. One consequence of this grant, he says, would be that numbers of rich Jews, Armenians, and of other strangers, who are engaged in the Levant traffic, would be induced to settle at Marseilles, and to enrich the republic by their capital and activity.—He also unites with former writers in recommending it to government to establish a colony on the banks of the Senegal; which, he says, are of the highest fertility, calculated to produce the sugar-cane, indigo, and cotton, and where slaves can be bought at a thirtieth part of the price which they obtain in the West Indies. The English, he observes, are fully sensible of the importance of African settlements; as the excursions, which they have caused to be made into the interior of that country, clearly prove; and he asserts that science was less their object than policy, and that many of the discoveries made by Mungo Park do not appear in his book, but have been kept secret by order of the British government. If all this be true, how came M. DE VOLX to know it?

The Indian commerce forms, as we may expect, a leading object of this work: but the general question whether it can be best carried on by committing it exclusively to a chartered company, or by leaving it open to private enterprize, has been so often and so fully discussed in our own country, that we shall not accompany the author in this part of his inquiry. We shall solely advert to his last argument, which is drawn from political considerations.—Such, he observes, is the towering ascendancy of England in India, so great is her power, and so extensive are her claims, that the private adventurer will appear there to little advantage; and it is only as belonging to a powerful company, connected with the government, that the ships of France can expect to carry on their intercourse without insult or obstruction.

The restitution of her Indian settlements to France is represented by the author as a small matter: but he does not conceal the hope that this may, at some future day, prove an inlet to French influence, and enable his country to dispute with proud Albion the sceptre of the east. He states his ideas with great circumspection, but they are not difficult to be discovered. Indian ascendancy, he tells us, has an influence on the destinies of Europe, and it cannot be an object of indifference:—but how to act? England oppresses and deposes the native powers; and are not the sovereigns of Europe to look to this aggrandizement? Shall France be indifferent to it? He quotes the speech of Mr. Dundas in the British House of Commons; in which he is said to have stated, that we have restored to the French their factories, but that it lies with us to limit their Indian commerce, or to prohibit it altogether: that we are completely the masters of that country; that the right of regulating its movements belongs to us; that the French cannot buy the most trifling product of it without our permission; and they can have no advantages but such as they must derive from our indulgence and favour.—M. DE VOLX complains of these lofty pretensions: but, instead of refuting them, he observes generally, that, in order to revive the commercial relations of the republic with India, a plan of commerce alone is not sufficient; and that it must be combined with a political one, which is necessary to give security to the movements and enterprizes of the trading body: that, unless the French trade with India is carried on by a company, closely connected with government,

there

there will be no hope of seeing annihilated trade and lost consequence restored; and that, if they render the trade free, they will be themselves driven to perpetual servitude, confirm the monopoly of the English, and become their tributaries. We anxiously turned over page after page, to discover what this redoubtable company was to do: we could not imagine how it was to go to work in order to secure the objects proposed by the author; and it appeared to us that they were attainable only by hostilities, and the favourable chances of another war. He seemed aware, indeed, of the tendency of his observations, and does talk of warm disputes and controversies arising between the two powers on this matter; and he lays the scene of the next rupture in Hindostan. The mighty functions of this great company at last resolve themselves to what are very harmless, namely, to those of understanding its rights better than the private adventurer, and of supporting them with more firmness. The company, he says, will have more the means of resisting pretensions that are too absolute; and, on the trackless Indian ocean, on its remote inhospitable shore, where the private trader might tremble under the iron hand of monopoly, the flag of a powerful body will display itself more boldly, will have perhaps useful connections on the spot, and thus render the English company more moderate and more just. All this is very well: but how is this to restore to France its annihilated commerce and lost consequence in the peninsula of India? Forming our judgment on what the author has advanced, we do not see one legitimate object to be attained by the company for which he contends. If such a company is formed, and if it acts, we shall think that the continuance of peace is in imminent danger.

To our great astonishment, trade with the United States of America forms no head of this work. The cause of the omission we leave our readers to conjecture.

Having pointed out the errors which prevailed in the former system of trade with the Antilles, M. DE VOLX lays down the restrictions to which colonies must be subjected, in order to be rendered most beneficial to the mother country. He condemns all half measures with regard to the revolted negroes, and he is an advocate for the absolute reduction of them to their former condition of slavery. We must, however, do him the justice to add that he alleges strong reasons for this being a measure of necessity; that he proposes to mitigate the slavery by humane laws, regulating the power and behaviour of their masters; and that he suggests that emancipation should succeed after a term which has reimbursed the proprietor.

Speaking of duties on imports and exports, the author tells us that they were, at first, impositions to cover the expences which states were obliged to incur for the protection and encouragement of commerce; and he strongly recommends it to his government to place them on their original footing. The case may have been in some states as he represents it: but it is clear that, very early in our own history, these duties formed a material source of public revenue. That a state which, in imposing them, seeks revenue to the detriment of the interests of commerce, acts most unwisely, we concede to the author: but why the customs, duly regulated, should not aid the public treasury, we own that we do not perceive.

On the subject of contraband, M. de Volx is very energetic in his opposition: he seems to consider it as a crime the most aggravated, and deserving of punishment the most severe; and he declaims with the utmost warmth against the contraband dealings permitted, and even protected, by civil governments. Those which are carried on by the Dutch and English with the Spanish colonies call forth his utmost indignation; and, indeed, language fails him in expressing his abhorrence of these state immoralities. Yet, not long before, he had himself allowed that the injudicious and oppressive restrictions, to which internal trade was subject under the old government, furnished an apology for the contraband then practised; and is he aware of no considerations which palliate the guilt of that public contraband which he so much reprobates?

M. de V. says that, by the treaty of Ponin, the English East India Company has bound the Mahrattas to hold no communication with any Europeans, except with such as produce English passports; and this restriction excites his most virulent invectives. We would ask, is not this an affair of the parties; and what is there in the stipulation which makes it not competent for them to enter into it? May it not be materially advantageous; or, if unequal, may there not be other articles of the same treaty which balance it by pressing on the other side? The author does not deign to examine it in this light.—The code of public law, on which the French republic has acted, informs us of no sacrifices which one free nation is not capable of making to accommodate or benefit another, from that of independence itself, to that of suffering its territory to be intersected by public roads:—Geneva prays to be incorporated with the great nation, and the prayer is heard;—the republic of the Valais is requested to grant to France a portion of her soil, on which to construct two grand roads to Italy; and the Valaisans comply with the demand. Whatever may be said of this treaty on abstract grounds, is it for a citizen of the French republic,

public, on general principles, to arraign and condemn its provisions? We were before strangers to this treaty; and we take the author's account of it as correct.

We next arrive at a passage in which M. DE VOLX strongly recommends certain cities of the republic to be made into free ports, in addition to Dunkirk and Bayonne. He proposes (as before observed) that Marseilles, which was in former times partially, should be made completely free, and also Antwerp and Mentz; Marseilles, as being the only point of communication with the Levant and the barbarous nations; Antwerp, as central to the commerce of the north and the south; and Mentz, as the centre of French connections with Germany, the upper and lower Rhine, and Holland.

Much good sense is discovered in what the author says under the heads of corporations, companies, apprenticeships, charters, and patents; and under those of failures and bankruptcies. With regard to some of these matters, the practice of this country is not without faults; yet still an acquaintance with it would have enabled M. DE V. to have added to the value of his work. He informs us that French commerce has received its greatest injury from a practice now become very common, and which the unsettled state of the country has favoured; namely, that of fraudulent bankruptcy. In this way, he tells us, great fortunes have been gained, of which the infamous peculators do not blush to make an open display; while the public does not mark them with the discountenance which their crimes ought to excite. This single trait speaks a volume on the moral state of France.—M. DE VOLX would have commercial controversies and litigations subjected to the decision of tribunals, consisting not of lawyers, but of commercial men. The scheme seems plausible, but we suspect that it is not solid. The practice of this country, which is of great weight, is against this theory.

After having expressed a surprize, which is very natural, that no section of the council of state is appropriated to commerce, the author suggests that this great concern should, in future, be assigned to a chamber of direction, which shall be subject to an *intendant général* of commerce; while the *intendant* is to be subordinate to a section of the council of state, whose sole province shall be the affairs of commerce:—the chamber to consist of commercial men who have retired from trade: three of its members should be for foreign trade; Bourdeaux, Marseilles, and Antwerp, to furnish one each: while three others should superintend the home trade; Lyons, Rouen, and the departments of the north concerned in the cloth-manufactory, to supply one each. This chamber is to be a repository of every kind of commercial information, always ready to furnish documents to government.

Whatever, in a general view, may be the merits of the work before us, and we admit that they are considerable, we are satisfied that, in regard to its immediate object, which was to give appropriate information to the French government on the subject on which it treats, it is highly defective. It takes for granted that which we never before have seen maintained; namely, that, in every state, commerce is of equally high importance, and demanding the same paramount attention. It were most easy to shew the contrary. In the case of France, it is clear that this is not, as in Great Britain, the first object of national concern; and that, though very important to the former country, it is secondary, in every view, to the cultivation of its natural resources. The author should have ascertained the degree of attention to which the latter object was intitled; having done this, he would have had a point from which he could set out, in undertaking to settle the claims which commerce can make on the consideration of his countrymen; and this method would have suggested the branches of it, to which it would be most expedient to attend primarily and principally. Instead of directing the views of his enterprizing fellow citizens to the beaten lines, where they are to meet competitors formidable from their wealth, their experience, and their long possession, and in a race with whom there appears no probable chance of success; he would have done better, we think, to have pointed out unexplored paths, where their first essays would have met with no competition; and also to have exhorted them to increase their assiduity in their own undisputed course. Why covet the Indian trade? Has France the shadow of a right to it? Why dispossess us of our traffic with Russia? Why is the infant commerce of France to begin in a sort of warfare? This advice is not less impolitic than antipacific. Why does the author, who seems to possess a most ardent commercial spirit, endeavour, by improper and injurious suggestions, to shorten the days of cordiality, and to rekindle those flames, hardly yet extinguished, which must occasion regret to every lover of commerce? Turkey holds out to France the fairest prospects of beneficial commercial intercourse; and if she supports that tottering empire, she may draw advantages in the way of traffic from this protection, which are incalculable. Will not France be favoured by Spain and Portugal, and by the new republics which surround her; has she not superior advantages in the Mediterranean; has she not colonies capable of becoming inexhaustible sources of wealth; and do not these furnish a sufficient field for her capital and her industry? It were wise, then, in her publicists, to suppress the effusions of their jealousy with regard to this country; they are as childish and unreasonable,

ble, as they are fruitless; and if they will indulge in them, Europe is too much enlightened to be misled by their clamours, which will impose only on themselves and their countrymen.

ART. IX. *Les Deux Tartuffes*, &c.; *i. e.* The Two Hypocrites, or Cordelia. By A......D..... D. L. M...... 3 Vols. 8vo. Dulau and Co. London, 1802.

CORDELIA and her mother, a French princess, driven from their native country by the storms of the revolution, find an asylum in a German court. Unrivalled personal charms, and all the excellencies of mind and temper, conspire to render our heroine the most attractive of her sex; and Alfred, the eldest son of the reigning prince, no sooner becomes acquainted with Cordelia, than he is smitten with an incurable passion for her, which soon calls forth a corresponding one in her bosom. The lovers are worthy of each other; and souls equally pure and exalted can alone conceive the ardour of their attachment.

The father of our hero discovers the inclinations of his son, and the favourable return given to them by the mistress of his heart. This prince, unlike most of those parents who figure in romance, belongs not to the unnatural tribe who pay no respect to the power of virtuous and honourable love; who regard the most momentous of ties as lightly as the most trivial contract; who, without scruple, sacrifice a child to their own caprices, to views of ambition, or to schemes of wealth.—On the contrary, he is the most generous and magnanimous of men; he is the first to discern and to admit the merits of Cordelia; her rank he allows to be equal to his own; and his mind was too elevated to induce him to disparage her claims, on account of undeserved misfortunes, which in his estimation, though they had deprived her of her splendid patrimony, rather ennobled than degraded her. Unluckily, however, not long before Cordelia had come to grace his court, this excellent parent had engaged his son to the daughter of a neighbouring prince, the friend and companion of his youth; and it is in vain that he sends an ambassador to obtain a release from his engagement, and to procure liberty for his son to follow the irresistible bent of his heart. The fame of Alfred had travelled before the envoy; the soul of the future father-in-law was wrapped up in the new connection; and the accounts of her intended husband had inspired the young princess with a passion in his favour, to which his presence could scarcely have made any addition. This most amiable and disinterested of men, the father of Alfred, is therefore obliged to interdict his son's union with Cordelia; and, submitting to dire necessity, these angelic beings now separate; Alfred departing on his travels, and Cordelia remaining behind:—but, though they conform their actions to their duty, their souls rebel, and they are not less subject to the empire of love than ordinary natures.

An Abbé *Basset*, who had been one of the most sanguinary revolutionists, and had been obliged to fly from France in consequence of his faction having been proscribed, had sought an asylum at the court of the hospitable father of Alfred. Aware that his original clerical character would procure him a better reception than that of a proscribed revolutionist, he had resumed it, and had address enough to have it recognized by a French bishop who resided in the same court. This Abbé is the reverend *tartuffe* of the tale; the other being *Hechelmann*, a member of the prince's council, an *illuminé*, and a philosopher of the modern stamp: but this latter acts an under part, and our limits will not admit of our giving a sketch of his curious character. The infamous intriguing *Basset* practises all his arts on the credulity of the princess, the mother of Cordelia, and is successful to the utmost of his wishes; for she appoints him her confessor, and he becomes her sole confidant. Not long after the departure of Alfred, the princess falls ill and dies. The miserable ecclesiastic had conceived a violent passion for Cordelia; and to this monster of vice, already plotting the ruin of her daughter, did the imprudent mother entrust the care of her. By her last will, she appoints this vile Abbé the guardian of Cordelia, with full power over her person and property; and she also confided to him a portentous secret, most deeply affecting the interests of the surviving orphan; by means of which, the wretch was one day to dash in pieces before her eyes the cup of unutterable happiness, and to deprive her of life.

It did not suit the dark designs of the Abbé to allow Cordelia to remain at the court of an excellent prince, and in the society of her honourable emigrant friends; and, sensible that she was the cause of depriving her hospitable benefactor of the solace of his son's company, she submitted with little reluctance to the Abbé's orders to depart.

The commencement of the tale is of a date barely subsequent to the accession of *Bonaparte* to the sovereignty of France. At the period which we have now reached, the emigrants returned in great numbers, were favourably received, and such parts of their property as had remained unconfiscated were restored to many of them. The Abbé accordingly takes his ward to France, and places her in a chateau in Brittany which had formerly belonged to her family. We shall not attempt to sketch the danger to which her virtue was exposed in this desolate

late ruin by the arts and cruelties of her infamous guardian; nor shall we detail the mode of her escape from the fangs of the monster to a retreat in which, for some time, she eluded his prying eyes.

The versatility of this eldest son of iniquity had raised him to power under the consular reign; and he at length discovers his ward's concealment. Alfred also, unable any longer to yield to the calls of duty, goes in search of Cordelia, finds her abode, and makes himself known to her. She had ever remained unshaken in her resolution, on account of the pledged honour of his father, whom she loved and revered, never to consent to Alfred's proposals; nor did his presence at all impair it: though she had learnt that her retreat had been traced, and that she must soon fall a prey to the wicked schemes of the Abbé. In this situation of things, a Comte *Dorville*, a man of a middle age, and possessed of very estimable qualities, appears on the stage, and is smitten with Cordelia; and to his passion, but for a prior one, she would in all probability have made the proper return. The reiterated persuasions of a pious and virtuous Curé, an old friend of her family, who was also her deliverer from the hands of *Basset*, and the confessor whom her mother had discarded to make room for this vile Abbé, began at length to shake her resolution; and, fearing lest she should not be proof against the importunities of the beloved Alfred, desirous of convincing his father of her high sense of honour, and seeing that she must marry or be again in the power of *Basset*, Cordelia becomes the Comtesse *de Dorville*.

If importunity, however, if a sense of honour, and if the dread of scenes more horrible than any which imagination could paint, induces Cordelia for a moment to forget what was due to love, we shall find the little god abundantly avenging himself.

Our heroine not only practises exemplarily all the great duties, but observes all the minute attentions which her new connection requires. In vain does she attempt more; her struggles only convince her of the impossibility of success; and her entire heart is in the possession of Alfred, while she is eternally bound to another, for whom she has the highest regard. This mental infidelity, which she has no power left to control, preys upon her spirits and her health; her sprightliness disappears, and her charms fade, while her exalted soul appears with greater lustre than ever. The worthy Comte discerns what passes in her mind; and not being able to soothe the sufferings of which he reproaches himself as the cause, he becomes equally unhappy.

On the marriage of Cordelia, Alfred fled far from her retreat: but, finding absence from her to be worse than death, he returns to the vicinity, though his delicacy does not permit him to obtrude himself on her view. A public hunt is announced, and Cordelia is to be one of the spectators. When the day arrives, the lance of *Dorville*, one of the most active partakers of the sport, fails to be effective; the fierce creature turns on his assailant; and he has already given him a dangerous wound, when an unseen person springs from a thicket, diverts to himself the fury of the enraged animal, and, at the expence of an alarming wound, rescues from immediate death the husband of Cordelia. This generous being is no other than Alfred. The husband and lover are placed in the same cottage, and both experience the kind offices of Cordelia. This scene, which is one of great difficulty, the author has managed with much address and delicacy. Alfred conceives the greatest friendship for *Dorville*; no one is more anxious for the recovery of the husband of Cordelia than her lover Alfred; while the former returns the friendship of the latter, and wishes to die in order to render his friend and Cordelia happy.

After a partial recovery, *Dorville* relapses, and death follows. The recollection of the worth of her husband, and of her inadequate returns for his kindness, now takes exclusive possession of the soul of Cordelia, and she seems to be in a manner insensible to the merits and claims of Alfred.

When the necessary space of time had intervened, and Alfred could with decency make proposals to the object of all his wishes, he meets with a positive refusal, in which she persists to the utter astonishment of every body: but how could Cordelia resist the supplicating entreaties of the father of Alfred, her generous protector, the object of her highest esteem? She yields.—The day of felicity seemed now about to dawn:—but it has pleased the author to order matters far differently; and his heroine exhibits a proof, either that there is another state in which suffering virtue shall be rewarded, or that Providence is unjust. The Abbe *Basset* is the evil genius from whom her destruction proceeds. The reader will recollect the mysterious secret intrusted to him by the imprudent princess on her deathbed. When Cordelia escaped from him, he resolved to get her again into his power, or to destroy her; and finding, at length, the former impossible, he set himself to work in earnest to effect the latter.

The Abbé, at this juncture, is seized with a violent illness: his disorder gains so much ground that there are little hopes of his recovery; and he professes the deepest contrition. The clerical deliverer of Cordelia, the man whom he had supplanted, becomes his confessor, and his conversion delights the good pastor; who joyfully communicates the news to Cordelia, and her friends at the German court, whither she had now gone, preparatory to the solemnization of her marriage. Contrary to all expectation, the Abbé recovers; he continues a regenerated man; and by the means of the confessor, on the ground that he had intelligence respecting her property to communicate to Cordelia, he procures leave to visit her, and to be present at her marriage.

In the course of his journey, and when not far from its end, he is mortally wounded by an unknown hand: but by the care of a friend of Cordelia, he is rescued from immediate death, and conveyed to the palace of the German prince; which he much solicited, in order, as he said, to obtain his pardon from Cordelia's own mouth.

On the evening previous to the marriage, he requests Cordelia, the prince, Alfred, and all immediately interested in their welfare, to meet in his chamber, to receive from his dying lips information of the last importance to his late ward. *Basset* then, with his witnesses present, and his documents arranged before him, requests Alfred and Cordelia to stand close to his bedside. Having surveyed the scene before him, a satisfaction beamed in his countenance, which seemed to suspend the tortures which he suffered; the young couple appeared transported by mutual love; and joy was seated on every countenance, in expectation of the happy event of the ensuing day. The monster, now sure of his blow, throws off the mask, and loudly cries, "Vengeance, thy hour is come. Thou wilt indeed precede but by a few moments that which will terminate my days: but it is enough that I shall hear it strike, and that I shall hurry to the tomb the ungrateful one who disdained me."—At the close of these dreadful words, he surveyed by turns Alfred, Cordelia, and the prince; then, addressing himself to the latter, he said, "Hasten to complete the nuptials of your son with this abject creature, as destitute of fortune as she is of birth, and who for twenty years has usurped a title to which she has no claim. The Princess of . . . . declared to me on her death-bed, that she was not her child: but that, being deprived of her own by death, she adopted this infant in order to fix a lover, and to prevent the immense possessions of her husband from returning to his family. Cordelia is the offspring of an adulterous connection; and the adulterer, her father, was no other than the Comte *Dorville*, whom she has since admitted into her embraces, under the sanction of an incestuous marriage. Behold the witnesses, behold the documents which attest my statements!" These proved but too clearly the truth of the dreadful tale.

Cordelia fell at the feet of the monster's bed, uttering piercing cries, with which the whole palace resounded; while the wretch seemed satisfied with the effects of his vengeance. When the intelligence of her dissolution was brought to him, he died with mental joy in the midst of the most exquisite bodily agonies.

Such is the substance of the story which these pages detail. When its complicated nature is considered, its parts will be admitted to unite not badly together: but had it been more simple it would not have pleased us the less. The author, (one of those gentlemen, we presume, whom the revolution has driven from their native land,) though very accomplished, appears not to have much experience in composition; and long absence from his country seems to have deprived his work of those niceties of idiom, without which, style must ever be jejune. Each character, however, is strongly marked, and throughout consistent with itself: but the features of the two *tartuffes* are certainly out of nature, and are seen only in crises such as that which France has experienced. A Marchioness here introduced is another French Lady G., and her letters give much information respecting the notions, habits, and manners of women of fashion in France under the old government.—The province of a person who discovers princely benevolence is assigned to an Englishman.—The author is no devotee, but seems fully convinced that morals cannot stand without religion, nor society be upholden if morals are wanting.

Many of the episodical parts of this work are highly interesting. Among those which are the most so, are the reflections on the Great Frederic's system of government; the account of the marriage of the Dauphine with the *Duc d'Angoulême* at Mittau; that of a German rout; and of the fashionable life in London; with several instructive letters relating to Russia; one in particular, which describes a Russian nobleman's mode of life at his country seat.

ART. X. *Mémoires Historiques, & Anecdotes, de la Cour de France,* &c.; *i. e.* Historical Memoirs and Anecdotes of the Court of France, during the *Reign* of the Marchioness *de Pompadour*. A Work which has been preserved in the Port-folio of *Madame la Marechale d'* * * *. Preceded by a Treatise on the State of Society, after the Subversion of a great Empire, effected by Immorality and Anarchy. By J. L. SOULAVIE, the Elder, &c. 8vo. pp. 424. Paris, 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 7s.

THE value of publications of this description depends very much on the character of the collector or author; and that citizen SOULAVIE is a person likely to give to works of this sort the utmost interest of which they are capable, the reader, who recollects what we had very lately occasion to observe with regard to him *, will scarcely expect us to admit. We then stated that we collected from his own declarations in print, that, though an Abbé, he so far gave way to revolutionary doctrines as to violate his vow by taking to himself a wife; and that he had so little abhorrence of these, that, during the reign of *Robespierre*, he was the accredited ambassador from the republic of France to that of Geneva :—when this same SOULAVIE, therefore, in the present and in a preceding work, writes in the character of an unswerving adherent to the antient institutions of France, both ecclesiastical and civil, we ask in what light are we to regard him? We are satisfied with putting this question †.

After all that had been published relating to this disgraceful epoch of French history, and after what the author had himself stated respecting it, in his memoirs of the reign of Louis XVI., what necessity was there for the present publication? No new facts are disclosed; and scarcely an anecdote, of consequence enough to be inserted in any form of publication, is retailed. It gives, indeed, a fresh opportunity for vilifying and holding out to indignation and contempt the last but one of the reigning monarchs; all the crimes and delinquencies of Madame *de Pompadour* are wrought up and detailed; the consenting sovereign is exhibited by her side; the philippics are directed against her; and the effects of the hard blows are made to pass to him. The contrivance is ingenious, and it eminently succeeds.—The sole object of the work is to strengthen an idea which the author had thrown out in his memoirs, and which he had much laboured; namely, that the late dynasty was physically worn out, and that its profligacy and incapacity severed from it the prerogatives of its birthright. The physical part of the writer's ingenious system is here dropped; it is not in unison with some decrees of the French government; it could not have escaped the anathemas of the consular catholic church; and the omission is hardly perceived. Indeed, the author appears confident that the moral causes of disqualification are amply sufficient to carry him all the length of demonstration. On the merits of efforts of this nature, in a political view, we have already made our observations; and we think that the present is by no means ill calculated to gain its object. Yet this practice of recasting the characters and distorting the facts of past times, in order to serve present purposes, not being to our taste, we shall dismiss the present volume, with recommending those who feel differently from ourselves to give it a perusal.

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* See Rev. Vol. XXXVIII. p. 290. 362.

† The reader will observe that we speak of M. SOULAVIE as the author of the whole of this volume, notwithstanding the artifice adopted in the title-page, to which we give no credit.

If we believe this author, Madame *de Pompadour* excited the whole infidel party to bring religion to discredit on account of affronts put upon her by the clergy, and it was she who placed *Voltaire* at the head of this party. The next communication is equally novel, and not less worthy of the present publication; viz. that the assassination of Louis XV. by *Damiens* was the effect of a plot instigated by English gold and English agency; and, farther, that all the distractions of France at that period, expressly naming the contests between the Jansenists and Jesuits, between the clergy and the parliaments, between these latter and the monarch, between the party of the dauphin and that of the king, were fed and supported by the means of money and emissaries from this country. A dialogue, which we are persuaded never took place, and the subject of which is the king of England's claim to retain the title of king of France, gives M. SOULAVIE an opportunity, in the person of Madame *de Pompadour*, of heaping the most gross abuse on our country and nation. It is not worthy of our notice and our censure.

ART. XI. *Faune Parisienne*, &c.; *i.e.* A Parisian Fauna, containing an Abridged History of the Insects in the Environs of Paris, arranged according to the System of *Fabricius;* with a preliminary Discourse on Insects in general; designed as an Introduction to the Study of Entomology. By C. A. WALCKENÆR. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 14s.

WE are informed by the author of this work that circumstances, which he has not thought it proper to specify, induced him to commence his plan of a Parisian Fauna with that part which usually forms the last but one in a course of zoology; and respecting the assistance which he has obtained in his labours, he says in his preface,

> 'I embrace this opportunity of publicly acknowleging my obligations to the gentlemen who so kindly aided my researches. The learned professor *Cuvier* was pleased, at my request, to direct his attention to the anatomy of the spider; a subject which has been hitherto involved in obscurity. M. *Bosc* generously presented me with his beautiful and very accurate drawings and descriptions, from nature, of more than twenty species from Carolina; and granted me permission to employ my pen and pencil on the originals contained in

his numerous and very valuable collection. MM. *Latreille*, *Daudin*, *Dufresne*, and other naturalists, have favoured me with some new species. To the attentions of the managers of the national museum, who allowed me to consult the rich stores committed to their care, I am indebted for the examination of several species which I had not formerly seen; and in the list of my correspondents, I ought to distinguish MM. *Chamisso* and *Klug*, who, with uncommon zeal, have collected for me all the species of spiders which are found in the neighbourhood of Berlin.'

Let us add, that the public are not slightly obliged to those of the writer's friends who hinted the propriety of a preliminary discourse on entomology; and should this introductory view be deemed lame and superficial in some of its parts, it is obviously composed with that spirit and interest which a Gallic pen usually imparts to the discussion of didactic subjects. The exposition of the Fabrician divisions and terms, illustrated by seven neat engravings, is comprehensive without being tedious, and manifests a singular and successful attention to perspicuity. The concluding paragraphs are strikingly animated: but we shall content ourselves with a few sentences:—

'The momentary heat of the sun's rays, reflected from the dazzling surface of ice or snow, will sometimes awaken that minute crane-fly, whose agile motions seem to indicate an eagerness to enjoy its transient existence:—that existence which must speedily yield to the rigours of the season, the chilling blasts of the north, or the absence of that luminary which aroused it into being. So frisks the playful youth, unconscious of the brooding earthquake, war, pestilence, or revolution, destined to cut him off for ever from the light of day.'

——'On the approach of winter, myriads of carcases of insects are strewed on the earth, and, in consequence of a rapid decomposition, restore the elements of their organized forms.—Such is the end of every living being—such, weak mortals, will one day be yours, who despise the fleeting life of the insect, and its frail works, and its humble industry. Ah! cease to boast of the powers and faculties which raise you above it. Does it not, in turn, possess talents which are denied to you, and faculties which are its own? Reflect on the immense distance which separates you from the Being of beings, who created it as well as you; and then say, what is the vast interval between the human and the insect tribes. Or, what is your passing breath, compared with eternity? What memorial of power, or of genius, shall the globe on which you tread be able to contrast with that Omnipotence which created and which preserves so many worlds?—with that intelligence which governs them, and which shines with such concentration of lustre, in the marvellous structure of a single insect?'

From these sublime questions, it is *our* fate to descend to the humble and unadorned, but useful paths of nomenclature;

and shortly to sketch the plan of a performance, of which the synoptical complexion forbids us to dwell on its merits with the minuteness of analytic criticism.

Each volume opens with a summary of the characters of the classes and genera which it expounds, accompanied with references to *Geoffroy* and *Linné.* The characters of the classes recur at the head of their respective divisions. Each genus is likewise introduced to its place in the arrangement by its appropriate marks, and an enumeration of the common qualities of its subordinate species. The latter follow in regular order, discriminated by suitable definitions or descriptions, with references to *Fabricius*, *Geoffroy*, or some respectable entomologist. The food and habit are also frequently noted; and several critical observations are occasionally interspersed.—The first article may serve as an example:

'CLASS I. ELEUTERATES.
Jaws naked, compound, bearing palpi.
1. Geotrupe. (*Geotrupes.*)
Palpi—four—filiform.
Lip—covered with hair, oval, entire, bearing palpi.
Antennæ—in a lamellated mass.

'The geotrupe has the body large, oblong, convex, bordered, smooth on the upper and hairy on the under side, the clypeus short, covering the mouth, often bidentate, furnished with horns in the male, and with tubercles in the female:—eyes large, globular, inserted on the posterior edge of the shield, fixed in a deep groove:—antennæ short, placed before the eyes:—thorax rounded, convex, often furnished with a horn in the male:—shield rounded:—shells hard, of the length of the abdomen:—feet short and strong:—thighs compressed:—legs toothed:—tarsi five-jointed. The general colour of the insects is black or dark. They are destitute of a *ligula* (tonguelet), and inhabit hot-houses and gardens. The larvæ live in dung and rotten wood.'

'1. Rhinoceros G. (*G. nasicornis.*)

'Thorax with three prominences, head surmounted with a recurved horn; shells smooth.

Fab. Syst. Eleut. 41. p. 13.
Geoff. 1. t. 1. p. 68.
Oliv. Ins. 1. pl 3. fig. 19.

'In hot-houses and gardens, in June and July.

'The female has a very small horn, and the thorax cut before.

'The head of the larva is gray; and the spiracles and legs are rufous.'

Copiousness and accuracy distinguish the generic descriptions, and consequently stamp them with a lasting value. With a perseverance of zeal which we cannot too highly applaud, M. WALCKENÆR has verified and amended the Fabrician divisions and characters, by his own observation; and, in course, he has been induced to adopt several of the genera proposed by *Latreille*. Of this number are *Throscus*, *Erodorus*, *Dasypoda*, *Epeolus*, *Melecta*, *Xilocopa*, &c. *Ichneumon*, *Vespa*, *Œstrus*, and some others, are justly noticed as standing in need of reform.—*Clairville*'s new and improved distribution of the weevils, founded on the structure of the *antennæ*, is duly indicated in the progress of the work, and resumed in the appendix with more detail.—Having found the male and female *Onitis flavipes*, in the forest of Lys, the author has been enabled to ascertain its true classification; and he has accordingly removed it from the genus *Copris*.—*Silpha livida* Fab. is found to be only a variety of *S. littoralis*.—*Oxyporus rufipes* is referred to *Staphylinus*, on account of the form of its posterior palpi, while *O. Marginella* is also classed as a variety of *Staphylinus rufipes*, &c.

Of more rare or non-descript species, we remark *Anthrenus versicolor*, *Spercheus emarginatus*, *Buprestis hyperici*, *Bruchus Persica*, several species of *Psochus*, *Erodorus bimaculatus*, and a list of spiders too long for our insertion. The single genus *Aranea* includes eighteen families, and 131 species. This new and interesting part of the present synopsis is extracted from a larger and splendid work on spiders, which, we understand, is in a state of considerable forwardness. For his classification and descriptions of *Andrenæ*, and some kindred families, the author is principally indebted to the liberal communications of his learned friend *Latreille*.

When much has been done, it may seem unreasonable to call for more. We cannot, however, dissemble that more ample specific notices and references would have greatly added to the utility of these volumes. The prevalence of the Fabrician system on the continent may justify a preference in the judgment of a foreigner: but the faunist of the present day, whatever may be his biases or pretensions, who would banish the illustrious founder of the *old school* to a mere table of contents, must not expect to escape the imputation of disrespect to the memory of the Swede, and of a want of accommodation to his *still numerous* disciples.

ART. XII. *Recherches sur la Nature & les Causes de la Richesse des Nations*, &c.; *i. e.* An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations. By ADAM SMITH. A new Translation (into French), with Notes and Observations, by GERMAIN GARNIER, of the National Institute. 5 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boſſe, London. Price 1l. 15s. sewed.

IN a preface to this work, the translator draws the line with great fairness between the French economists and our celebrated countryman. They maintained that the earth was the only source of wealth; that labour, when employed on it alone, produced more than its value, but, if exerted on other objects, added to them simply its value, and nothing more; that the latter were dependent on the cultivators of the soil; that, as land alone yielded wealth, it was the only source of taxation; that taxes, on whatsoever they were primarily and ostensibly laid, must ultimately fall on the land; and that it would be more economical to impose them upon it exclusively. M. GARNIER does not dispute the truth of these conclusions, but he asserts that none of them are of any practical utility, and that some, if followed in practice, would be injurious. Taxes, he observes, by being connected with the pleasures and enjoyments of men, are more productive, and paid with more cheerfulness, while they have the property of inciting to superior industry. Dr. Smith, he says, discovered that *labour* was the universal agent in the creation of wealth; and he made it his object to analyze its power, and to find out the causes which produce and increase it. Setting out from the true point, he departed into no useless track, nor wandered into any road which misled:—riches, on his theory, were made to flow from what it is in the power of man to increase and manage; and to him unquestionably belonged the merit of discovering the principle on which they depend.

The translator, having cleared up this point, proceeds to state that the want of method, and of those didactic forms which so much aid the reader,—a deficiency generally attributed to English authors,—was never more conspicuous than in Dr. Smith's volumes; and this is certainly a defect, from which it is impossible to vindicate that immortal production. M. GARNIER, in order to facilitate the understanding of his author, has laid down the heads of the work in the order in which he conceives they ought to have been treated; and no doubt, had the course here sketched been followed by Dr. Smith, his book would have been read with more pleasure and interest, and his doctrines would have been more easily apprehended. We are of opinion, therefore, that the arrangement here given, or something on the same plan, might be advantageously prefixed to a future edition of the original. Every reader of Dr. Smith will admit that, even in this country, where the fault is so common, (according to the present translator,) no performance of modern date, of half its merit, is so deficient in method and has so little *finishing* as the *Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations*.

The concluding subject of the preface is a parallel between the riches of France and those of England. The writer states that this is a point on which Dr. S. no where touches, being aware how little satisfactory the result must be to his countrymen: but this is a strange observation, since M. Garnier's own conclusions, which can scarcely be supposed to be more favourable to Great Britain than those of Dr. S. would have been, are far from being unsatisfactory to an Englishman; in spite of the unfairness and confusion of the statements on which they are built. Though he professes the contrary, he undoubtedly undervalues almost all the sources of our wealth. As far as respects this country, his inferences would be correct if his premises were well founded: but, with regard to his own, he forms his conclusions on a process of reasoning totally different, and which we shall refrain from criticising, since we do not very well comprehend it. Indeed, without entering farther into this controversy, we are satisfied with the concessions of M. Garnier. He makes the territorial produce of France to be to that of England as 3 to 2: but, as their respective population is in a much greater ratio, it leaves to the latter an incomparably greater surplus at the disposal of the public. No British writer, even the most sanguine, has a higher notion of our resources than this member of the Institute. According to him, we might for a long time go on imposing taxes without affecting our capital. Our opulence, he admits, exceeds beyond comparison that of France. Our dead capital, at the present moment, he allows to be much the largest; the greatest part of that of our rival having been employed to feed the revolution and the war; before which events, he says, it exceeded that of the English. We do not give our assent to this latter assertion, nor are we aware how it can be supported. England, it is alleged, imports a vast quantity of the rough material, which it exports in a manufactured state; and we are told that more hands are employed to procure the rough material, and to produce the commodity which purchases it when manufactured, than are necessary to convert the material into the manufactured article, since this is done by machines which diminish population, and brutalize those unhappy beings who guide their movements. Hence, it is observed, England is constantly adding to the relative strength of surrounding nations, while it takes away from its own. We deem it sufficient to state this sophism.—M. Garnier concludes by declaring, that he is not one of those who regard the British wealth as illusory and chimerical:

‘ I am far (he says) from thinking, that the ruin of the bank and a national bankruptcy would annihilate the national opulence of England. The privation of a convenient circulating medium, and would no doubt occasion a temporary shock: but it would have surprizingly less influence and duration than the general opinion would assign to it. The real capital, that which is fixed in the lands, the mines, the manufactures, the navigation, the internal and foreign establishments, the factories which fill the two hemispheres, as well as that immense circulating medium which supports its boundless commerce, would still be left; and to imagine that such a nation as this depends on the bank and the funds is to believe in the fabulous island, in which men full of vigour and health took no other nourishment than the dreams of their imaginations.'

The writer makes very ingenious and just observations on the comparative state of the taxation and public debt of the two countries. The taxation of France, being almost entirely direct, is real; while that of England, being almost wholly indirect, is in a great measure nominal. An enormous impost in England does not press more heavily on the subject, it is not of more real value, nor does it set a greater quantity of labour at the disposal of government, than a more moderate one does in France;—a statement which is explained by the circumstance of the articles, which the tax is employed to purchase, being already subject indirectly to former taxation;—and moreover the salaries of all government agents, who hold places for life, are assessed to the land tax.

England, the author very sensibly observes, is, from necessity, a great naval and commercial state; and France, if she attempts to rival her in this respect, will mistake her road to power. Her situation and her interest dictate to her another course; let her attend to her interior, let her repair her roads, restore her specie, and re-establish the course of internal circulation: it is on agriculture, home manufactures, and domestic commerce, that individuals should employ all the capital which they can command. 'It is (he says) to our interior commerce, that all our exertions should be directed. What treasures must we squander, what time and what labour must we waste, before we can amass that countless navy, that army of mariners, those mercantile establishments, those factories, those means of communication, which connect together the four corners of the universe, and that immense chain of capital which unites the whole.'—He advises his countrymen to leave this task to the English; and having deduced good reasons for this opinion from the situation of France, we are sorry to see him cease to be the dispassionate philosopher, by representing the pursuits, to which the English are devoted, in the most degrading light. At length, however, he quits the abusive digression, and ably removes all the objections that may be urged against the course which he recommends to his country. He is a warm and zealous disciple of Dr. Smith; he regrets the prejudices that still prevail against his doctrines, and he exhorts the government not to be induced to lose sight of the general interest, by the clamours of ill judging and narrow minded traffickers. He invites the public to do justice to the services of the illustrious author of the *Wealth of Nations*, in chasing from society the bugbear of the balance of trade, which had not only misled nations, but involved them in bloody war; and he laments the slow progress which reason armed with all its force, and truth arrayed in all its brilliancy, make against the passions, when enlisted on the side of error. The prejudices, he says, attacked by Smith, reappear with no want of assurance in the legislative tribunes, in the administrative councils, in the cabinets of ministers, and in political writings. People talk daily of foreign commerce, of colonial intercourse, even the balance of trade again assails the ear, and all the reveries of political arithmetic are maintained as if these things had not been discussed by Dr. Smith, in a manner which ought to have made them disappear for ever from the field of controversy.

Both nations are obliged to a writer who labours to dispel prejudices which are mutually hurtful, and to point out to them the path of their true interest; and we hope that M. GARNIER's exertions, to remove from the minds of his countrymen all aversion to a free commercial intercourse, will be successful. On account of views so honourable to him, and so important to each country, we pardon him for all the nationality which the concluding part of his preface so abundantly betrays. Indeed, our resentment cooled much, and our contempt died away, when we saw in a note the name of Sir *Francis d'Ivernois*; which brought to our recollection the statements, inferences, and prophecies which he was encouraged to palm on the public by the late administration of this country. If England deemed it right to keep such writers in her pay, and to heap honours on them, why should it not be allowed to French publicists to volunteer something of a similar service? A writer of the rank of the present translator should, however, have been above such an office.

M. GARNIER appears thoroughly to understand his author, and to have executed with fidelity and success the task of translator which he imposed on himself. Though he seldom ventures to differ from our great writer, he dissents from his notion with respect to productive and unproductive labour. We accede to the criticism, but it had been made before.—He also offers objections to Dr. Smith's arguments in favour of the legislature limiting the interest of money.

Of the translator's notes, we cannot speak with high praise. Where the subjects are indifferent, they are tedious, dull, and unsatisfactory; and wherever they respect this country, which is the case with the bulk of them, they can give little useful information to the English reader, while they will furnish him with abundant proofs of ignorance, of misrepresentation, and of spleen, on the part of the writer.

ART. XIII. *Mémoires sur l'Egypte*, &c; *i. e.* Memoirs concerning Egypt, published in the Years VII. VIII. and IX. Volumes 3 and 4*. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE third volume of this collection opens with the Commission appointed by General *Kleber* for ascertaining the actual state of modern Egypt, and for assigning to certain individuals their specific objects of inquiry. The members nominated in this commission are required to compose distinct reports under the heads of legislation, and civil and religious usages,—administration,—police,—government and history,—military affairs,—commerce and industry,—agriculture,—natural history of the inhabitants,—monuments and costume,—geography and hydraulics. Each of these heads is again subdivided. After this arrangement of the several objects of investigation, we are presented with the following papers.—The first memoir is intitled,

On the Agriculture and Commerce of Upper Egypt. By M. GIRARD, *Engineer.*—The author was required to ascend to the first cataract, in order to examine into the means of augmenting the influence of the Nile on the fertility of the soil; and to collect the materials necessary for establishing, on a general plan, the hydraulic system of the country. In a long memoir, he evinces the attention which was paid by him to a subject of such essential importance to the *new colony*, which French imagination represents as the future *entrepôt* of *the riches of India*. The paper is subdivided into sections, on the physical constitution of Upper Egypt,—on its government in former times, and the moral causes of the decline of agriculture,—on its actual state and productions,—on the right of property and collection of taxes,—and on the present state of industry and commerce. It is impossible for us to enter into the details here exhibited, and the scantiness of our limits obliges us to be contented with stating the results.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 131. and Vol. xxxviii. p. 524.

The truth of antient history, which represents the extreme fertility of Egypt, is confirmed by the existence of those stupendous monuments which could only be erected in a country extremely populous, and in course extremely fertile, and it became a natural object of inquiry, whether, by some revolution in nature, Egypt has ceased to enjoy her former advantages; or whether the decline of agriculture ought not rather to be attributed to the operation of moral causes. M. **Girard** shews that the order of nature has not been interrupted; that no country is capable of greater ameliorations than the Saïd, or Upper Egypt; and that the most abundant success may be reasonably expected from exertions properly directed to this end. The rains, says he, which fall in Abyssinia, have not ceased to feed the sources of the Nile; which, annually swelled by the same torrents, bears the same tribute to the sea; and if the valley which it waters is not so regularly inundated as it was formerly, the difference arises solely from this cause, that the Nile, being now left to itself, spreads, at the time of the inundation, to a superabundant breadth, unrestrained by human industry, which is absolutely necessary to fix its limits. There is also every reason, he adds, for believing that the human race is not degenerated; and that the inhabitants are now capable, under a wise government, of exertions adequate to the restoration of the pristine fertility of their land: but, when human nature is oppressed and degraded by despotism, the bounties of Providence are bestowed in vain.

The Manner of making Bread in Egypt.—A commission was appointed by General *Menou*, to insure to the army the comfort of bread of an uniform quality, and to prevent the adulteration of this *staff of life;* and every operation which corn undergoes, from its rough state till it is converted into bread, was minutely superintended. The first thing which will strike the reader is the great difference of weight between the same quantity of bread corn in Upper and in Lower Egypt:

	Upper Egypt.		Lower Egypt	
Three ardebs weighed -	792 *lbs.*	0 *oz.*	878 *lbs.*	
———— produce of bolted flour - - -	531		562	
Water and leaven added to make it into dough - -	306	8	333	
The weight of the dough will be	837	8	895	
The bread, after having been baked, and having stood 15 hours to cool, weighs	656	4	698	8
The evaporation during the baking,	181	4	196	8

Previously to the grinding of Egyptian corn, it must be washed and dried; and, under the head of *Purification*, we learn that the commission found that good bread depended on good washing of the grain, good grinding, good bolting, good leavening, and good baking. Most admirable discovery!

On the Remains of the City of Eleithias in Thebais; and on the Modes employed in Agriculture and other Arts of the first Importance, by the antient Egyptians. By M. COSTAZ.—It is here contended, on the evidence of the sculptures now existing on the monuments of Egypt, and in opposition to the assertion of some historians, that the antient inhabitants of that country offered human sacrifices to their deities. By means of the paintings in one of the grottos of Eleithias, the author discovered also the exact processes of the antient Egyptians in agriculture; even the shape of their hoe and plough, and the manner in which the latter was drawn. The oxen are represented as harnessed by the horns, and driven on with a double-thonged whip by the person who holds the plough; and we observe one plough drawn by four men harnessed two and two. So perfect is this painting, that M. COSTAZ perceived that the grain which is sowing is barley, which was cultivated in remote ages, and employed in making bread long before the use of wheat; the latter having been introduced into the rural economy of Egypt by the first Ptolemy. There is no picture of an instrument resembling a harrow. The operations of harvest are minutely represented, and oxen are seen treading out the corn, as mentioned in Deut. xxv. 4.—Many other curious particulars are stated, which we must not detail. The paintings also represent the operations of the vintage, of fishing, of bird-catching, &c. &c.; and the author concludes from the whole that the antient practice, in preparing the most necessary articles of food, was not very different from that which now exists in his own country.—The postscript discusses the merit of the paintings at Eleithias, considered as productions of the fine arts.

Observations on the Palm-Date and its Culture. By M. REYNIER.——The germination of this tree from the root, its propagation by suckers, its organization, culture, varieties, harvest, and produce, are particularly explained in this paper. The date, it is observed, if left to itself, would form natural forests: but as it is an article of the highest importance with the Egyptians, they multiply this plant round their villages, and employ much care in its management. It has been often re- [illegible]'d that every thing belonging to the date-tree is useful:

but to us the particulars of its cultivation cannot be very interesting.

The Method employed in the Caprification of the Fig-Sycamore. By L. Reynier.—The process of Caprification (a term borrowed from *Caprificus*, the Latin name of the wild fig-tree,) has been explained by Tournefort and others. It consists in applying the fruit of the wild fig-tree, which nourishes a swarm of insects, to the cultivated fig, which is hastened to maturity by the puncture and irritation occasioned by these insects; in the same manner as the ripening of figs in our own gardens (see M. R. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 129.) may be accelerated at least a fortnight by opening the eye of the fruit and dropping into it a little sweet oil. Instead of the fig-tree, the fig-bearing sycamore is generally cultivated in Egypt as more adapted to the soil and climate; and its fecundity is unequalled by any other tree: for scarcely is one crop gathered before another appears. To aid the prolific disposition of this valuable plant, and to hasten the maturation of its fruit, the Egyptians, when it has attained about a third of its growth, climb the tree, and with a sort of knife operate on that part of the fruit at which the stamina are united: the juice exudes, and covers the wound; and, by this kind of vegetable castration, the fruit obtains its full size and maturity in a few days.

On the Administration of Egypt at the Period of the Arrival of the French. By M. Tallien.—The Turkish Government of Egypt was doubtless defective in the extreme; and M. Tallien, for a very obvious reason, represents it to have been as unprofitable to the Sovereign as it was oppressive to the people. We are told that the Grand Signior did not annually collect in Egypt more than about 5,000,000 livres, 200,000l. in money; and that, after all expences and drawbacks were discharged, the sum which actually went into his treasury at Constantinople was very inconsiderable. The reader is hence left to conclude that the invasion and occupation of this portion of the Turkish dominions by the French could be no great loss to the lawful Sovereign.—M. Tallien explains the mode of gathering the Miri in money and in provisions, (the latter was collected only in Upper Egypt,)—the tax on heritage, (which often amounted to three years' rent: but this was arbitrary; in fact there is not a single proprietor of land, in one sense of the word, throughout all Egypt:)—indirect imposts;—the administration of the lands and of the canals, &c.: but we must not enter into these particulars. When, however, it is stated that the imposts on the land are equal to three-fifths of the produce, we cannot wonder at the decline of agriculture an the wretchedness of the inhabitants.

Note relative to certain Appendages of the Raïa and the Squalus Species, extracted from a Memoir on the Sexual Organs. By M. Geoffroy.—We cannot enter into any examination of this paper; which, like many of the lucubrations of French naturalists, presents details not calculated for general perusal.

A Mineralogical Description of the Valley of Cosseir. By M. Roziere.—The observations contained in this paper were made by the author in company with the troops which were dispatched from Keneh, across the desert, under the orders of Generals *Belliard* and *Donzelot*, to take possession of the port of Cosseir on the Red Sea. The 1st section describes the valley from Egypt to the wells of Guitta; the 2d from Guitta to the fountains of El-Aouéh; 3d, from the fountains of El-Aouéh to those of Lambagéh; and the 4th from Lambagéh to the port of Cosseir. At Birembarh, situated about four hours' march to the south of Keneh, they found wells, the water of which was intolerable, smelling like liver of surphur. Thirteen hours' march brought them to Guitta, which is a station for the caravans, boasting of three wells constructed with masonry: but the water of them is not good, though usable. Near to these wells, are some ruins; and from the report of the Arabs, confirmed by M. *Bachelu*, it appears that there is another route, which, according to present vestiges, was formerly much frequented; leading to a point higher up in the Red Sea, where the danger of navigation is much less than at the bottom of the gulph. On quitting Guitta, the route takes a north-east direction, and passes through a narrow defile flanked by black mountains: but M. Roziere does not admit Mr. Bruce's account that they are of a volcanic nature. Mountains of various kinds of stone next occur, which the antient Egyptians employed in the arts. Here is to be found the *breccia verde*; of which material a noble sarcophagus, well preserved, was dicovered in a ruined mosque at Alexandria, and which made a part of the collection of antiquities designed for the National Museum.—A long mineralogical detail is here given of the various materials which compose these mountains, but for this we must refer to the memoir.

The author mentions his surprize at seeing in the midst of this arid desert many acacias (*mimosa nilotica*, Linn.); at a little distance from which are the fountains of El-Aoueh, the water of which is good, and which are distant 25¼ hours' march from Keneh, and 17 from the port of Cosseir. The mountains El-Aouéh and Lambagéh are composed of schistus, gypsum, and calcareous stone, inclosing what have been called by zoologists the *ostrea diluviana*, &c. Lambagéh is the only place in the valley which is agreeably situated. The vegetation is represented as languishing: but a rivulet of clear water flows through it, which in the rainy season swells to a torrent. The camels of the caravans are allowed to drink of it, but the men, it is said, abstain from it as unwholesome; this notion, however, is contradicted by the author of the subsequent memoir.—To the north-east, appear immense mountains of granite, from which it has been supposed by Bruce and others, that the antient monuments of Egypt were formed: but M. ROZIERE does not allow that there is any good reason for this opinion, since the chain of mountains which border the Nile could furnish all the materials requisite for these structures.—On leaving Lambagéh, mountains of schistus and petro-silex are passed; and a deep ravine then presents itself, through which is the road to the port of Cosseir. This port lies at the bottom of a wide gulph, open to the east; and the navigation of which is dangerous, on account of sand-banks and coral rocks.—To the memoir is subjoined an account of the different routes to Cosseir, of the march of the caravans, and of the Arabs who escort them.

Notice respecting Cosseir and its Environs. By M. DUBOIS, *senior Engineer.*—The writer of the preceding paper having fatigued himself by conducting us through desert to Cosseir, M. DUBOIS kindly steps in to relieve him from the additional trouble of describing it; indeed he gives also his journal of the route, but this we need not notice. The houses of Cosseir are low, and constructed of unburnt bricks, which are made of clay found under the sand in its vicinity. It has two or three mosques, with very low minarets: but inhabitants it has properly none; for the Egyptian and Arabian merchants, who compose its population, quit it as soon as their mercantile business is transacted. No house is furnished with a cistern, and the water which they usually drink is brought from a fountain distant a day and a half's march. The environs are desert. The vessels which enter the port are coasters, without decks.—The paper concludes with an account of the amusements and mode of sepulture prevalent among the Ababdés.

Of the Geographical Position of the Pyramids of Memphis, of the Direction of the most Northern with regard to the Meridian, and of its vertical Height. By M. NOUET.—Much pains were taken, by trigonometrical admeasurements, &c. to ascertain these points. The longitude of the great pyramid is given at 28° 51′ 17″, its latitude at 29° 59′ 49″. By drawing a meridional line, this pyramid was found to decline 20′ towards the west, though there can be no doubt of its having been the intention of the architect to place it parallel to the meridian. Its length is 699 feet, 9,7 inches; the diagonal of the base 989 feet, 8 inches; the total height 440—11,7.

Observation of an Occultation of Venus by the Moon at Cairo. By the Same.—This observation was made under very favourable circumstances, and the results are given in a table annexed.

Of the Caravan of Darfur. By P. S. G.—This city, situated in the interior of Africa, is said to be larger than Cairo, though not so populous. It is a general *entrepôt* for merchandise, and between it and Egypt a considerable commerce is maintained. Two caravans come annually into Egypt from Darfur, consisting each of four or five thousand camels; and the length of their journey to Siut in Upper Egypt is forty-five days. These camels themselves are objects of commerce; three-fourths of them being sold, and the rest employed in carrying back articles of merchandise. The commodities brought from Darfur are elephant's teeth, rhinoceros's horns, ostrich feathers, gum arabic, tamarinds, and natron; the last of which is collected by the way, as the provisions with which the camels were loaded are consumed. The number of slaves annually brought by this caravan into Egypt amounts to five or six thousand; of which four-fifths are young men and women. They are chiefly sold at Cairo, where scarcely a family in easy circumstances does not include several of these negroes: their condition, however, (especially in the case of the males,) is more comfortable than that of the negroes sold to the Europeans on the coast of Africa; for slavery at Cairo is a kind of adoption.

Extract from a Memoir on the Marine. By M. Le Roy.—The object of this paper is to shew the importance of a navy, of fisheries, colonies, and commerce, to the riches and strength of a state. 'By her maritime power, (says M. Le Roy,) England was able in the American war to resist France, Spain, Holland, and the United States; and after ten years of peace, she found the means of forming and supporting a coalition, which has been the source of the internal miseries and foreign wars of our country.'

A Description of the Sena collected in Egypt. By M. Alire Delile.—Sena is well known to be the leaf of a species of cassia: but this fact is here mentioned as a new discovery! There are two sorts, one with pointed leaves called sena of the Saïd, and one with obtuse leaves, called sena of Tripoli or

Barbary; both, however, are found in Nubia and Upper Egypt. The mode of gathering and preparing it for sale, and the practice of the Arabs in adulterating it by mixing with it the leaves of the cynanchum, are detailed in this paper. There are gathered annually 2000 quintals, which, after having been picked, are reduced to 1200: but it is difficult to procure the sena of the Saïd unmixed.

Critical Note on the Ximenia Ægyptiaca. By the Same.—It is of importance to describe with exactness those productions of the vegetable kingdom which are employed in medicine, in order that objects nearly resembling each other may not be confounded. This persuasion induced M. DELILE to examine with attention the Ximenia Ægyptiaca, the fruit of which passes in Egypt for the Chebula Myrobolans, though it bears a nearer affinity to the Buckthorn. The paper merits the attention of botanists and medical gentlemen.

On the Irrigations, Agriculture, and Commerce of the Province of Fayoum. By M. GIRARD.—This may be considered as an Appendix to the long paper of M. GIRARD, inserted at the beginning of this volume. It contains many interesting particulars, under each of the heads here specified; and it concludes with observing that, when Strabo tells us that Fayoum was distinguished from other prefectures by the beauty of the country and by the variety of its productions, we are not to question the truth of his account from its present state, since many of its natural advantages have been lost through the carelessness and barbarity of its last masters. It is possible, however, under a wise government, to restore its antient fertility, and to awaken the industry of its inhabitants.

Note on the City of Tentah, and on the Factions which divide the Inhabitants of Lower Egypt. By the Same.—Tentah is situated in the most considerable province of the Delta, and is celebrated for the tomb of a Mohammedan saint; who is said to have performed many miracles, and over whose ashes a mosque equal in magnitude to any in Cairo has been erected. The religious veneration for this saint brings many persons into the Delta: but superstition among Mussulmans, as well as among Christians, does not appear to encourage the growth of the amiable and social virtues. Two parties, under the names of *Sa'd* and *Hharam*, divide the villages of the Delta. The origin of the difference is doubtful, but its effects are bloody; and the Arabs avail themselves of it ultimately to oppress and plunder both sides.

Topographical Description of the Valley of Egarement: with Geological Conjectures respecting its successive States, and the Formation of the Isthmus of Suez. By the Same.—This valley was explored for the purpose of ascertaining the probability of opening a communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, either by land or by means of a navigable canal. The result of the examination was that difficulties almost insurmountable opposed the cutting of a navigable canal through this valley. Of the geological conjectures, it is sufficient to say that they are mere conjectures formed on the system of modern geologists.

Medical Note on the Saïd. By M. ROUYERES.—The object of this short note is to state the superior salubrity of the Saïd or Upper Egypt, where the inhabitants are robust, and the maladies which often depopulate Lower Egypt are scarcely known. Here the ophthalmy does not prevail, and the plague is not very common; it is remarked, however, that this malady is more dangerous when imported from Nubia and Abyssinia, than when derived from Lower Egypt.—The note concludes with an account of a boy, the half of whose leg was bitten off by a crocodile as he was swimming in the Nile, and of the healing of the wound by cauterizing with red-hot iron and afterward auriating with oil.

Note on the Population of Cairo. By M. DESGENETTES.—In addition to the statement of the population of Cairo, which is given at 300,000 without including the citadel, Old Cairo, or Boulak, this note adduces instances of longevity; individuals being mentioned who reached the age of 131, 120, 110, and 105: but, owing to the want of registers of births, some doubt is entertained respecting the accuracy of the reckoning.

The third volume concludes with a Report made to the Egyptian Institute, on a Course of Experiments proposed by M. GEOFFROY to throw light on a mysterious subject of physiology, from which perhaps it will be impossible to remove the veil.

Vol. IV. must be the subject of a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIV. *Journal d'un Voyage en Allemagne*, &c. *i. e.* Journal of a Tour in Germany, in the Year 1773. By G. A. H. GUIBERT of the former French Academy, Author of the General Essay on Tactics. A posthumous Work, published by his Widow, and preceded by an Account of the Life of the Author, by *F. E. Toulongeon*. With Plates. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 14s. sewed.

WE cannot give a better idea of this work, than by making the following extracts from the editor's life of the author:

'This journey was wholly devoted to military studies; the author ollowing in detail all the campaigns of the *seven years' war*, which hen formed the theatre of military instruction, on account of the number and skill of its dispositions, its marches, its encampments, and its attles.

'The journal of this tour, executed with rapidity analogous to its ubject, is one of those compositions which best depict their author. deas, sentiments, views, projects, observations, all succeed each other with no other arrangement than the order of the conceptions themselves: sometimes displaying the feeling and delicate soul of Sterne, ometimes the penetrating and reflecting mind of Addison, and always that unreservedness of thought and expression, which diffuses a charm which mere correctness of style could never counterbalance.'—

M. GUIBERT left Paris on the 20th of May 1773, and proceeded by Strasburg, Manheim, Darmstadt, Francfort, Hanau, Gotha, Leipsic, Dresden, and Torgau, to Berlin and Potsdam: then to Dresden, and by Lowositz and Prague to Vienna. From Vienna he made a tour through Hungary, by Presburg, to the *Généralat*, or Croatian frontier; of the miliary constitution of which, as well as of the organization of he troops called Croats, Pandours, &c. a very intelligent and letailed account is given. He also went into Bosnia, and reurned through Gratz and Neustadt to Vienna; and thence hrough Olmutz, into Silesia, to attend the king of Prussia's reviews near Breslaw and Neiss, which are very minutely described, and ably criticized.* After these reviews, he again visited Vienna, and returned to France in October of the same year, by the way of Lintz, Munich, and the frontiers of Swisserland.

Although the writer's remarks are chiefly military, yet both he philosopher and the politician will find much to amuse and nterest them: but it is to be regretted that the criticisms on everal of the battles, the fields of which the author visited, and ther important details, were written on separate papers, and re not published with the journal.

M. GUIBERT makes us acquainted with several of the Polish onfederates, and with the principal persons at the different towns at which he stopped; having the art of discerning characters at one view, and of expressing them in very few words. For example; our countryman Lord Malmesbury, then Mr. Harris, is thus described: 'Supped with Mr. Harris, the English minister: has finished the arrangements respecting the Falkland islands; appears to be an acute man; speaks French perfectly; the garden belonging to his house is delightful; he has laid it out in the English taste.'—Some farther extracts will shew more of the author's style and disposition:

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* In the figure of the square, however, p. 168, vol. 1. no representation is given of the grenadiers, to defend the angles mentioned

'Before we arrive at Nancy, part of the road is very fine, consisting of embankments over valleys, or rather over precipices: but admiration is soon embittered by reflecting, that this road is produced by *corvées* (feudal task-work, without compensation)'—

'*Fulda.* What enormous abuses are these ecclesiastical sovereignties! O Frederic, if thou shouldst live twenty years longer, I recommend them to thy consideration.'—

'*Erfort,* belonging to the Elector of Mayence, a large depopulated town, not rich. It is not a partial remark which has so often been made respecting the difference between protestant and catholic countries: it impresses itself on the mind at first sight. In the same territory, under the same government and the same taxes, with the same sort of cultivation and the same trade, the protestant village will maintain itself, while the catholic one is overwhelmed with ruin and misery.'—

Speaking of the lines of Stolhoffen, forced by Marshall Villares, the author condemns their formation in general. 'It is weakness, (he says,) which constructs lines, and weakness defends them.'

On Frederic the Great;

'What horrors has he committed in Saxony! What ravages of every kind, and all executed at pleasure: pitiful animosity against Count *Bruhl,* whom he should have been great enough to despise. That victorious Attila should have given Rome to the flames is not surprizing: but that a king who calls himself a philosopher, and wishes to be deemed a patron of the arts, who lives in the 18th century, that he should........!'—

'Every thing is like a farm with him, and he is the farmer: that is to say, the monopolizer of all.'—

'It was a singular remark of Col. *Quintus,* in conversation with me, that all Europe entertained false notions of the cause of this prince's successes; and that it was his manœuvring, rather than the discipline and the valour of his troops, which made him a conqueror; that there was a great difference between the theory of a camp and the practice of war; and that, if well examined, *Lissa* was the only battle which he gained by tactics, &c.'

'The king is always making verses, and they are detestable: it is evident that he has no longer any corrector with him *: he does nothing like other people; has an aversion for all repairing or replacing, and never allows any: every thing is falling about his ears: state of his carriages and stables: anecdotes on this subject from the master of the horse himself.—Entry into Berlin with seven grey horses and one black: etiquette required eight greys, but one was dead, and he would not have another to replace it. He has only one carriage for town and country use, and for travelling: a Parisian physician would not so easily content himself! Seldom uses it, but rides almost every where on horseback: comes thus to Berlin, followed by a groom, and sometimes a page: speaks to the people,—knows every body,—and the names of most of the tradesmen and artisans; &c.'—

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* M. GUIBERT seems to have been actuated by a little national pique, on account of the king's treatment of *Voltaire* and *d'Argens,* and of his having expressed an indifferent opinion of French poets; liking none but the Abbé *Delille.*

'False idea in France of the courage of this prince. Not born, perhaps, with that of the great *Condé*, but has made himself courageous on principle, as he plainly proved in the last war;—carried it even to temerity at Torgau, Hokenkircher, and Kunersdorff.—Has triumphed also over nature in other respects:—was characteristically idle, and fond of lying late in bed: is now one of the most active of men, rises at break of day, and on all emergencies is the first and the last on horseback.—Is prodigiously fearful of cold, yet has made more winter campaigns than any body; and never wears a pelisse or a cloak, be the weather what it may.—Anecdote on this subject at the camp of Neustadt:—he had but one coat, went to dry it by the kitchen fire, and then took his place, *smoking away*, at table by the side of the emperor!—Pages of the chamber accompanied him at this interview, dressed in velvet, although it was summer. All is singularity and whim with him: he has no uniformity but in the allotment and the employment of his time; always at the same hours and at the same occupations.—Mark the difference between ordinary and extraordinary men: you see the one at a glance of the eye, and may judge of them from one day, one week, or one hour of their life: they are equilateral triangles, of which we need look at only one side. But such a man as the king of Prussia has a thousand aspects, a thousand points of comparison, a thousand shades, a thousand inequalities: his character resembles those physiognomies which defy the efforts of the artist's pencil.'

Many other anecdotes of Frederic, and of the Emperor Joseph, are interspersed; and both these royal characters are detailed at large in subsequent parts of the work. They appear to be striking and full-length portraits: but the latter has the greater merit, from having been composed before the Emperor developed himself on the stage of Europe, and at a time when other writers were giving much more flattering impressions of him.

'Sentiments of chivalry, of honour, and of gallantry, little felt by the Germans:—a good people, but full of apathy and devoid of all spring;—and from the Oder to the Rhine, everywhere the same.'—

'The soldiers are badly maintained and badly clothed,—like the Prussian troops, at all times but when on parade.'—

We meet with many entertaining particulars respecting Vienna, the character of the city, of its society, and of the principal personages of the Court. Respecting the celebrated Prince *Kaunitz*, we have the following passages, in different parts of the journal:

> 'Dined with Prince *Kaunitz*: every thing in the French style.—A man of whimsical character in all points of view.—Another long conversation with him:—he seemed lost in it:—his reputation, I think, is usurped.—There are too many littlenesses, too much pusillanimity, too many incongruities, in the daily transactions of his life, to permit him ever to be a great man.—A crowd of anecdotes on this subject.—I have been warned that, after all his civilities to me, it is very likely that he will not speak to me a week hence; that depends on the humour in which he may rise in the morning, on the slightest cloud passing over his mind, on the least indisposition which he may feel or anticipate.'—
>
> 'They told me truth concerning Prince *Kaunitz*; he no longer speaks to me:—I have dined twice with him, and he has not addressed a word to me:—perhaps he is out of humour with some workman, or has passed a bad night.'—
>
> 'Altercation with Prince *Kaunitz* about the *Constable of Bourbon* *;—littleness of this minister:—has shewn me no civilities since.'

The author is decidedly of opinion that the French regiments, both cavalry and infantry, are, singly, in every respect superior to the Prussian; and consequently, that they only require to be exercised in large bodies, to excel also in the *grande tactique*.

While at Berlin, also, the journalist makes this reflection:

> '—Saw various unimportant objects, which would attract no notice at Paris, but which I must see because they are 300 leagues distant from it, because one would leave nothing unseen, and, more than all, because the buildings, and the concatenation of details apparently the most trivial, throw light on the spirit and the manners of a country. Besides, while thus amusing the eye, one always hears anecdotes, which are remembered, compared together, and afford food for reflection. How would a man improve his mind, if he could always live the life of a traveller!'

Had Lord Shaftesbury made use of this argument †, the great Locke must have admitted its force.

We must now, however, reluctantly withdraw our attention from the remarks of this sensible and observing traveller; not being able to attend him, through his 2d volume, to the Prussian Reviews in Silesia, and in the farther progress of his tour. The plates in this work, besides the figure of the square already noticed, consist only of a frontispiece to each volume. The first represents the author at the stone which marks the spot where the great Gustavus was killed, on the plains of Lutzen; and the second is a neat view of the beautiful waterfall of Sluyn, on the frontiers of Croatia.

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* A play written by M. Guibert: see note to p. 527.

† In the dialogue upon travelling.

Having presented this imperfect sketch of the present publication, it remains for us to give an abstract of the life of the author, prefixed to the first volume.

JACQUES-ANTOINE-HYPOLITE GUIBERT was born at Montauban the 12th of Nov. 1743. His father was a very intelligent officer, and took great pains in forming his son for the army: in which design he so perfectly succeeded, that at the school at which young GUIBERT was placed, his name was honourably quoted as an example to others, long after he left it.

At thirteen years of age, he followed his father to the field, and served six campaigns in the German war: three as a captain in the Regiment *D'Auvergne*, and the other three on the staff, where he gave frequent proofs of his judgment and spirit. In particular, at the affair of Philingshausen, being charged with orders respecting the position of a battery, and finding circumstances changed, he took the bold step of giving directions contrary to those with which he was intrusted, and by his decision contributed to the success of the day.—On this occasion he had a horse shot under him; and another during the same year, in the advance guard of Baron *de Clozen*.

After the peace in 1763, he assiduously devoted himself to the study of the theory of his profession, till the expedition to Corsica took place; where he possessed the entire confidence of Marshal *de Vaux*, the Commander-in-Chief, and obtained the rank of Colonel for his services, in the action of *Ponte-Nuovo*, which decided the fate of the brave but undisciplined Islanders. At the end of the campaign, he was rewarded with the *Croix de St. Louis*, when only twenty-four years old.

In 1770, two years after his return to France, he published the celebrated *Essai général de Tactique*: a work too much known and admired throughout Europe, to make it necessary for us to follow the editor in his eulogium upon it: but, alas! it drew on poor GUIBERT the envy too often attendant on merit, which embittered a great part of his days. His pride disdained to answer his enemies, as much as his mild spirit disliked controversy; he therefore determined to travel, and leave his work to answer for itself.

On his return to France, he pursued his literary turn, and produced *Le Connétable de Bourbon*, a tragedy, which was represented with great applause before the Court at Versailles [*].

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[*] Here seems to be some mistake in respect to time; since M. GUIBERT, in his journal, (as we have already stated,) mentions that

He afterward wrote two other tragedies, the *Gracchi*, and *Anna Bullen*, of which the editor speaks very highly: but they were not published, the author being called to assist the celebrated M. *de Saint Germain*, in his reform of the French army. He is said to have been the soul of this minister; and much to his honour, he continued his friendship in his patron's disgrace.

After the new organization was completed, GUIBERT returned to his studies, and, among others, wrote the famous panegyrics on Marshal *Catinat*, and the Chancellor *de l'Hôpital*. He afterward assisted at the camp in Normandy; and during the disputes concerning the number of ranks in which troops should be drawn up, he published the *Réfutation complète du système de M. Menil-Durand*.

The French government having determined to send troops to assist the Americans, the author was ordered on that service: but, on the eve of embarking, he received counter-orders;—a disappointment which he attributed to the malice of his enemies, and which preyed on him very deeply. As soon as he had recovered from this mortification, he began a work intitled *Histoire de la Milice Française*; which, from the profound manner in which he treats his subject, might be called the history of the art of war, and of the military system of the nations of Europe, from the time of the Romans. He had brought it to the eleventh century, when he was drawn from his retirement by having obtained for his venerable father the appointment of *Gouverneur des Invalids*. While he was assisting in reforming the abuses of that noble institution, his merit prevailed over envy, and he was at last admitted a member of the French Academy; where his introductory address is said to have been much admired for its truly classical spirit. Two years afterward, his health obliged him to retire to the country: but he was soon recalled, by the death of his father, to comfort his aged mother. Indeed, it appears that one of the most estimable traits in GUIBERT's character (and a truly amiable portrait of him is here drawn in all points of view) was his filial piety; a feeling respecting which we have the following just sentiment from his own pen:—'If a man were permitted to choose his destiny, the first step to happiness in the commencement of life would be that of being descended from an enlightened and virtuous father.'

In his retirement with his family, he wrote the *Eloge du Roi de Prusse*, a work of 300 pages: which, we must confess, is very opposite to the character given of Frederic in the author's journal.

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had a dispute with Prince *Kaunitz* relative to this tragedy; and also that the King of Prussia spoke to him several times respecting it.

GUIBERT was afterward appointed a member of the council of war, formed to establish a regular system in the French army. Here envy and malice again most vehemently pursued him; and, being at last persuaded to write in his own justification, he was first attacked by the people for his arbitrary sentiments, then by the court for his popular principles, and was again driven into retirement. At the commencement of the late revolution, he wrote several interesting papers: but, aware of the prejudices existing against him, he assumed the name of *G. T. Raynal;* under which he obtained all the fame that was refused to GUIBERT. The chief of these works, was *De la force publique considérée sous tous ses rapports.*

In his last illness, the injustice done to him still preyed on his mind, and he frequently exclaimed; "They will one time know me, and do me justice!" He died on the 6th of May 1790, of an almost broken heart, at the early age of forty-seven. A most flattering mark of esteem and respect was paid to his memory, by the regiment of *Neustrie,* which he had commanded ten years; the officers and men unanimously voting a letter of condolence to his widow, which is given at length by the editor.—He left but one child, a daughter, married to M. *De Villeneuve.* One of his nephews was killed at the battle of Aboukir, of whom *Bonaparte* thus speaks in his public dispatches: "We lost 100 men, among whom were the adjutant-general *Leturc,* the *chefs de brigade Duvivier* and *Cretin,* and my *aid-de-camp Guibert.* I had much friendship for the fourth."

ART. XV. *Métrologies Constitutionelles et primitives,* &c.; *i. e.* The Constitutional and Antient Systems of Measurement compared with each other, and with the System established by Statutes and Edicts. 2 Vols. 4to. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

IN France, many things are now fast returning into their former channels; and, if we may trust report, the old table of weights and measures is likely to be again revived, in opposition to a new system founded on many difficult and curious investigations, after numerous discussions, and by the united labours and talents of the most ingenious men that France, or, perhaps, that Europe can boast.

If, by the influence of custom and prejudice, a system so ingeniously devised and so philosophical should be subdued, the present work, formed in consequence of that theory, and intended to illustrate and explain it, must also fall. The revolution may have been and certainly was the cause of numerous and great evils: but it is absurd to reject the benefit of the little good which it may have done, because it was effected by such baneful agency.

So many obstacles present themselves, that the propositions of ingenious men are rarely carried into practical execution; and the new scheme of measurements was formed and accomplished only because power and ingenuity were on the same side, and because the minds of those who usually endeavour, from feeling and interest, to perpetuate what is old, were infected with the desire of change. We love not compulsion, scarcely in any shape: but, *in France*, could it be matter of complaint as an unusual and tyrannical exertion of consular power, if such a system were by edict ordered to be continued?

That the philosophical arrangement of weights and measures is liable to be completely changed may, without great rashness of conjecture, be presumed from the modification which it has actually received. In page 201 of this publication, we find an *arret* of the consul, by which it is permitted to translate the systematic names, or the names given by the constitutional nomenclature to the new weights and measures, into French names; which latter may be used conjointly with the former, or singly, in public acts, as well as in common daily transactions. Now, as the editors properly remark, not only names are given up, which described the nature and quantity of the thing designated, but there is great reason for apprehending that the *new weights and measures* may be confounded with the *old weights and measures*, when both have the same denomination. This will not happen, it is true, when the difference between the new and the old weight of the same denomination is great: but, when it is small, the buyer and the seller may by the same name understand different weights, sometimes inconsiderately, more often purposely; and thus an inlet will be afforded to vexatious mistakes, to petty litigations, to cunning fraud, and to exorbitant imposition.

The probability, however, that the present work may soon become useless, from the abolition of the system which it is intended to illustrate, is not a sufficient plea for our declining to examine its contents and their distribution.

It is, perhaps, not altogether superfluous to remind our readers that, of the new system of weights and measures, the base, on which every thing is supported, is a certain measured portion of the earth's circumference. This base is called the *metre*, and is equal to the ten-millionth part of the fourth of the earth's meridian; not of the earth's mean meridian, but of that meridian only which traverses France: for, as the precise figure of the earth is not determined, we know not whether the several meridians may agree in length. When the new system was first adopted, the metre was determined conformably to the then existing measures of the earth's meridian: but, since a more exact determination of the length of the earth's meridian was expected from new measurements and calculations, the adopted metre was called the *provisional* metre, to be employed until the determination of the *definitive* metre.

One object of the publication before us is to exhibit the values of *old* weights and measures in terms of the *new*, fixed according to the provisional metre; and to afford the means of reducing the latter weights and measures to the standard of the definitive metre. To effect this last operation is desirable, on the grounds of curiosity and speculative exactness: but no great practical benefit is attached to it; because, on the supposition of the provisional metre being the true metre, weights and measures having been constructed, contracts and bargains made, &c. it was proposed not to introduce as a new base the *definitive* metre; since numerous inconveniences would result from such an introduction, and very trifling advantages, on account of the extremely small differences that would subsist between the weights and measures belonging respectively to the two metres.

Previously to the determination of the definitive metre, it was proposed by the national institute to make the difference between the two metres (if any should be found) disappear, by estimating the lengths of the standards when immersed in water at different degrees of temperature: but, on experiment, it was not found practicable to descend to a temperature so low, that the difference between the lengths of the two standards would disappear.

To facilitate that object of the present work which we have already mentioned, very ample details and tables are given. The plan of making the integer and decimal numbers of different size is, we think, very commodious; for instance, when in 12.361, the integers 12 are characters much larger than the decimals 361, the eye immediately distinguishes the proper value of the number.—Many parts of the first volume are also occupied in curious investigations concerning antient measures. The royal society of agriculture had expressed its belief of the existence of an old system of measurement, to which the weights and measures in use had reference; and in order to ascertain the reasonableness of this belief, the authors of this work examine several of the old French measures, note their alterations, and endeavour to trace the original measure from which they have been derived. The details are uninteresting to an English reader: but the result of the discussion is that, although some weights and measures have suffered arbitrary alterations, yet nearly all refer to a base which is a certain measured portion of the earth's circumference. What the base of the old system is, and to what degrees of accuracy it accords with the base of the new, will appear from an examination of the second volume, which contains documents and discussions relative to that subject.

We have seen that the first volume of this publication was principally intended for practical purposes, to facilitate the knowlege of the new system of weights and measures. The object of the second volume is the gratification of curiosity, but of curiosity that is rational and laudable. For, if the point can be clearly proved, it is certainly a remarkable fact that the antients should have made their system of weights and measures repose on the same base which has been adopted in the present times; and that what has been esteemed one of the noblest results of modern science should have been known to the inhabitants of Egypt four thousand years past, and have been recorded by them on monuments that have survived the dilapidations of time and the injuries of accident.

In order to establish that the base of the antient system of weights and measures, as well as that of the new, was a certain measured portion of the earth's circumference, the writers of the work before us examine the monuments of antiquity, which were intended to remain as perpetual standards: of these, the principal are the great pyramid, the stadium of Laodicea, and the Nilometer. According to antient authors, each side of the base of the great pyramid formed the great stadium, or the Egyptian stadium, which was composed of 400 great cubits. The exact measurement of this base seems, however, to be a matter of some difficulty, and travellers vary in the length which they assign to it: for the part of the base meant as the standard is not now to be clearly defined, on account of accidents and the collection of the sand around it. The builders of the pyramids, however, foresaw this circumstance, and provided a remedy for the evil. Within the great pyramid, they caused to be inclosed an abridged copy of the original standard of the primitive measure of the earth; and they took care that it should never be extracted from the pyramid. 'There exists (according to the present treatise), in the interior of the pyramid, a block of jaspar marble, hollowed within; designed to serve, it should seem, as a sepulchral tomb; and this block, as *Pauton* observes, can never be taken from the pyramid in an entire state, because the narrowness of the passage within the pyramid would not admit it.'—By means of this monument, the length of which is $\frac{1}{100}$th part of the great stadium, the base of the great pyramid becomes known; as does the primitive measure of a terrestrial degree.—There is also another remarkable circumstance attending this monument inclosed within the pyramid: its hollow contents form a standard measure for capacities.

The chief object of the disquisition concerning the pyramid is to demonstrate that the length of its base is a certain measured portion of the earth's circumference: but other uses, besides that of serving as a standard for linear measures, were attached to it. The area of one of its sides was meant to be a standard for the measurement of surfaces; and the pyramid, from its situation and form, was intended to serve astronomical purposes. (See p. 519. of this App.)

After having ascertained the length of the base of the great pyramid, the authors examine the stadium of Laodicea, the Nilometer, and the documents relative to them; yet, however curious and important the results may be, the details by which the exact measurement of these standards is fixed are rather tedious.

That the monuments destined to transmit the deductions of a refined science are of great antiquity, there is little doubt; and many documents relative to this point are contained in the first articles of this volume. Among others, a manuscript is brought forwards, which is said to have been found in the great pyramid, which after much labour was perused, and from which it appeared that the pyramids were built 4331 years ago, or 390 years before the deluge. After this account of the manuscript, occurs a curious passage:—' but what is matter of the greatest wonder, there have been found in South America, near Mexico, at the village Teotiguacan, (which, in the language of the country, signifies the place of gods and of adorations,) two pyramids of the same kind as those of Egypt, which appear also to be equally antient; one called the pyramid of the sun, the base of which is 450 cubits of the Nilometer long, and 300 broad; and the other called the pyramid of the moon, 300 cubits long, 225 cubits broad.'

The authors have brought together a great store of information relative to the subject of which they treat: but much might have been rejected, and much, with great gain of perspicuity, have been differently arranged. We read, and acquire information, without making considerable progress towards the close and sum of the argument. Extracts are continually given from *Bailly*, *Robertson*, &c. and sometimes it occurred to us that the authors were, at all events, determined to make a book. In speaking of the means by which the standards

dards of the primitive measures have been transmitted to us, they quote the opinion of *Bailly*, that the Egyptian pyramids were only copies of more antient pyramids existing in Asia; and in a note they make mention of the *terrible* zodiac, but give no opinion concerning it.

On the antient astronomy, its precision and extent, *Bailly* (it is well known,) wrote very learnedly and elaborately; and his ideas on that subject are frequently quoted in the chapter designed to shew that the antient astronomy was equally perfect, in many respects, with the astronomy of the moderns. Perhaps the strongest argument on this head is the opinion of *Laplace*; who found a wonderful agreement between the results of his theory and the tables of the Indians.

Among other remarkable particulars, we meet with an extract (not indeed for the first time) from a letter written by a learned person, Edward Bernard, who had examined the Arabian manuscripts at Oxford with considerable attention. In this quotation, it is mentioned that the Arabian astronomers not only employed immense clepsydras, but likewise pendulums. *Bailly*, who was acquainted with this passage in Edward Bernard's letter, (since discovered in Toderini's treatise on the literature of the Turks,) proposed several questions to the university of Oxford. We know not whether the manuscripts were ever again consulted, and his queries answered: but of these questions the most important, no doubt, is that which inquires whether the Arabians fixed the length of their pendulum by any known linear measure: for there are many antient measures forming true pendulums; the Pythic foot forms a pendulum vibrating half seconds, and the cubit of the Nilometer forms a pendulum vibrating in three-fourths of a second, &c.

Some of the disquisitions offered to us in this collection are unsatisfactory: for instance, that in which it is feebly attempted to be proved that the oblateness of the earth was known to Eratosthenes; and others are unintreesting, as that by which the height of antient giants is attempted to be ascertained, and the Magellanic giants proved to be descendants of Enoch.

Though our account of this work has now swelled to some size, we have not mentioned all the interesting matter contained in the second volume; and many valuable discussions concerning the weights and measures of the Greeks, Romans, and Orientals, must remain unnoticed. With due praise to the authors for their industry and research, we must express our wish that they had differently arranged, and condensed into a smaller compass, the information which they have collected on this curious and important discussion.

Another publication relative to this subject has appeared at Paris, viz.

ART. XVI. *Métrologie Française,* &c.; *i. e.* French Metrology, or a Treatise on the System of Measurement, according to the definitive Determination of the fundamental Linear Unity. By MM BRILLAT and BAZAINE. Printed by Order of the Prefect of the Department of the Seine. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 7s. 6d.

THIS volume contains an extensive set of tables, which are rendered necessary in France by the new system of weights and measures; and they are preceded by brief introductions, explaining their use and illustrating them by examples. Rules are also given for measuring the superficial and solid contents of bodies, together with the proofs for those rules: but the demonstrations are not very strict and satisfactory.

ART. XVII. *L'Esprit de L'Histoire,* &c; *i. e.* The Spirit of History, or Letters Political and Moral, from a Father to his Son, on the Manner of studying History in general, and that of France in particular. By ANTOINE FERRAND, late a Magistrate. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THIS voluminous publication consists of Letters originally penned for the purpose of guiding the historical studies of the author's son; a very promising youth, of whom death prematurely deprived this affectionate parent. We are of opinion, however, that the worthy magistrate would on the whole have better consulted his own fame, if he had suffered this correspondence to remain among the family possessions; as an unequivocal document, from which his other descendants might collect the excellent feelings and praise-worthy industry of a respectable ancestor. Yet, if the reader be fond of historical disquisitions, and blessed with a good share of patience, he will, in the course of the work before us, meet with observations which will repay him for the labour of perusal.

Most other historians have been panegyrists of the antient Grecian states, and they have selected from their memorials all that commands wonder and esteem: but the present writer sketches with considerable ability the vices and defects with which they are chargeable; while his propensity to censure does not lead him to desert the line of truth. We subscribe, also, to most of the observations which he has made on the Roman Republic, on the radical defects of its government, on its insidious policy with regard to the rest of mankind, and on its usurpations and oppressions; from the perusal of which remarks, the student will rise well prepared to examine the various documents which its writers have transmitted to us. Not less happy and able are many of his remarks on the monstrous faults chargeable on the executive powers of Imperial Rome.

The rise and success of Mahomet are related in a very candid and dispassionate style, and in a very just and satisfactory manner. As far as truth will allow, indeed, the statements could hardly be more favourably made by a disciple: but it is altogether a very curious article, and will interest the reader.—Much valuable matter is also thrown together in the Letters which treat of the Parliaments of France, and the feudal usages of that country.

Having thus directed the reader's attention to those portions of this performance which most merit commendation, we feel ourselves bound to state that, regarding it as a whole, we cannot speak favourably of it. For the most part, the author's information appears to have been derived from ordinary sources, and his reading to have been very limited; proofs of extensive research and profound meditation rarely occur; while his reflections are often founded on confined views and unworthy prejudices, equally in opposition to sound policy and true philosophy. In his zeal against popular excesses, he forgets to censure the prime movers of those events which call them forth; and in contending for the sacredness of established authority, he wholly overlooks the intolerable abuses of which it is, unhappily, at times so tenacious.

As a specimen, not of the work in general, but of its best executed parts, and of what might have been expected from the author, had he been as much master of this subjects in general as he was of some particular branches, we lay before our readers the following very just and forcible statement of the case of France, during the struggle between Henry IV. and the League, and in the event of it;

> 'How much must a stranger at this time have been struck by the state of France! Could he imagine that it was to survive the conflict; or would he have believed that it was soon to rise to a higher degree of authority and splendour than it had for a long time known? A power, the territories of the two divisions of which surrounded the whole of France, had solemnly vowed its ruin, and lavished against it treasures, which were inexhaustible. She attacked her without by veteran troops, and she assailed her interior by all the arts of intrigue. A powerful house, from which France had received the greatest services, sought, in return for them, rewards the same with those which Charles Martel and Hugh Capet had received. All things seemed to combine to place this family on the throne, from which it was intended to exclude the lawful heir on account of religion. The Great collected around it, because the elevation of a new dynasty appeared a favourable moment for resuming their usurped

power, of which the reigning government had almost wholly stripped them. Fanaticism, calling itself religion, induced the people, in crowds, to lend themselves, their lives, and their fortunes, to these ambitious projects. What is to be the *dénouement* of this alarming and terrific tragedy?

'If the reader of our history should here ask himself, is it possible to rescue from dissolution this great powerful kingdom? – could any thing occur to the imagination of man as more likely to atchieve this object, than the intervention of a great king, and an equally great minister? The one must have invincible courage to surmount every obstacle, and that deliberate intrepidity which is prepared for every conjuncture: while the other must be endowed with that stoical insensibility which nothing can shake; must possess that integrity of principle which no circumstances can affect; an ardent attachment to truth; full confidence in the rectitude of his heart; thorough contempt for intrigue; a constant love of honorable and useful service; and a happy talent for applying the proper remedy to every disease in the exigency of the moment. In order to give to the exertions of such men their greatest effect, it was necessary that they should well know each other, and act in unison: that no middle person should intervene between them; that they should not be king and minister only, but friends; that they should have one wish and one heart. Such were the instruments by which Providence saved France in this great crisis! Such were Henry IV. and Sully!'

We must not omit to mention that the reader will find, in the last two volumes, the current notions entertained in France respecting the policy of Louis XIV. and that of his great antagonist our William III. ably and fully stated; notions which are so different from those that were adopted in this country. The truth of the case is only to be obtained by comparing these representations together; and if on the one side exaggeration has been carried to a great length, it cannot be denied that on the other too many palliations have been attempted.

Art. XVIII. *Observations & Experiences sur l'Art d'empailler les Oiseaux*, &c.; *i. e.* Observations and Experiments on the Art of stuffing and preserving Birds. By M. Henon, formerly Professor of the Veterinary College at Paris, Joint Director and first Professor of that at Lyons, &c. &c. and M. Mouton Fontenille, Member of the Athenæum at Lyons, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 98. Lyons. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2s. 6d.

Though this little treatise does not entirely supersede the prior remarks of *Kuckahan* and *Mauduit*, it has strong claims to the public notice. Its joint authors are advantageously known as skilful and active naturalists; and, during five and twenty years, they have not only prosecuted the study of ornithology, but, in the course of multiplied botanical and hunting excursions, over every description of ground, from the summit of the Alps to the shores of the Mediterranean, they have been accustomed to observe the natural forms, habits, and attitudes of the feathered tribes. Their practical knowlege, also, of a subject hitherto imperfectly understood, is attested by upwards of three thousand specimens, prepared according to various methods; and we may add that they have communicated the results of their observation and experience in a style of writing equally removed from affected brevity and inconsiderate prolixity.

The grand and leading principle of their operations is to *dress* according to nature, to catch the attitudes of the living individual, and to figure them in the artificial adjustment of its spoils:

'It is an easy matter,' they observe, 'to stuff and array the emptied skin of a bird, without regard to any particular attitude: but such vague efforts are unavailing to the progress of ornithology. To adhere to a uniform style of stuffing is repugnant to that observation, which teaches us that congenerous species, as the *jay*, the *magpie*, and the *crow*, are distinguished by their respective varieties of carriage.

'The difficulties which we have experienced, in portraying the natural forms of the subjects of our daily observation, induce the presumption that it is hardly possible to exhibit the appropriate attitudes of those foreign kinds, to whose manners and habits we are strangers. We may even regard as factitious the general air of those exotic birds which embellish the cabinets of the curious. Most engravings, also, whether coloured or not, designed from stuffed specimens of foreign or domestic kinds, usually represent the individual attired according to the fancy of the dresser. Were it not that we are more desirous of applauding than of criticizing the efforts of zealous ornithologists, we might confirm our assertion by a long list of faulty figures selected from works which have obtained the highest reputation.

'Suffice it to observe that these figures, copied from specimens injudiciously prepared, and consulted as models, propagate the error of those who regard their imitation as a perfect work. In most plates, truth and genuine nature are obviously sacrificed to the coloured characteristics of the plumage: but a moment's reflection may convince us of the impropriety of such a mode of procedure. The study of books is not that of nature. Suppose even that the engraved pattern be an exact representation, the artist who prepares its similitude merely performs an act of mechanical imitation. He may multiply his copies, but his results are always the same, and essentially monotonous. His hands alone are at work, while his mind is inactive; and the attitude of their bird is invariably the same. He, on the contrary, who has observed the originals on the theatre of nature, can, by varying their attitudes, endow them with grace, proportion, motion, and life. The one is a servile copyist, who dares not quit his pattern; the other seems to create and animate matter at his pleasure.

'In order, then, to bestow an air of life on birds destined for the cabinet, it is necessary to watch them in their different attitudes, in their moments of rest, fear, anger, and love; all which impart strong and peculiar expressions to their general aspect. Even changes in the state of the atmosphere, as heat, cold, &c. and their corresponding effects on the appearance of the subject, should be accurately noted. Nay, the naturalist, who derives from fowling some other pleasure than that of murder, should attentively examine the birds which occur to his observation, and rather forego his prey than allow its habits to escape his notice.'

We have cited these paragraphs, because they illustrate a general and important doctrine, to which the directions delivered in the sequel may be considered as subordinate.

A previous knowledge of the anatomical structure of birds is shortly, indeed, but forcibly recommended; and the essayists then proceed, agreeably to their plan, to lay down various minute instructions concerning, 1st. the preparation, and, 2dly. the preservation of specimens.

I. In the compass of a few pages, they sketch the characteristic attitudes of birds belonging to the six natural orders of *Linné*, occasionally expanding their discriminations in the notes. By attending to these outlines, a judicious collector will be enabled to give something like *costume* and natural expression to his lifeless images.

Between thirty and forty pages are next occupied with pertinent directions relative to cutting up the skin and discharging its contents, emptying the skull, fixing the head, passing the wires into the bones of the legs, unfleshing the wings, forming the blocks, arranging the tail feathers, inserting the eyes, and stitching the skin.

Our limits will not permit us to follow the authors in their exposition of defective and their recommendation of more approved practices: but we cannot omit to notice the precaution of varnishing their wires, and wrapping them in tow, in order to preclude rust. A superior degree of firmness must likewise result from subjecting the principal wire to the formation of the neck, and conducting its curved termination into the skull, through the occipital aperture. The eyes, of glass enamel, are introduced with singular effect through artificial perforations within the bill, at the sides of the palate.

This first part concludes with a brief notice of a memoir presented, by the same writers, to the Society of Agriculture, &c. at Lyons, relative to a new, commodious, and economical method of obtaining the desiccation of birds apparently in the act of flying. None of the particulars, however, are mentioned, because Professor *Gilibert* purposes to insert the whole in the second series of his *Medical Naturalist.*

II. In the second part, the authors state their objections to the common modes of expelling insects, or of preventing their approach, and then advert to their own more successful processes. The simple contrivance of *le Vaillant*, however, is mentioned with approbation. It consists in putting the skins of birds infested with insects into a close tin-box, and keeping them, thus covered, in boiling water, during several hours. The heat destroys the insects and their eggs, without affecting the plumage.

A varnish composed of the essence of turpentine, and decoctions of acrid, bitter, aromatic, and astringent substances, (the bark of oak and pomegranate, gentian-root, &c.) is particularly recommended, on account of the durable compactness which it will impart to the skin, and of its strong odours, which are so offensive to insects.

The ingredients of the tanning liquor, to which these gentlemen give the preference, are particularly enumerated, and their proportions mentioned in note 24.—The best materials for stuffing, and the least liable to the attacks of insects, appear to be sea-grass-wrack (*zostera marina*), several mosses (particularly of the genus *hypnum*), tow, and cork.

'But the most effectual preventive against insects is a requisite degree of care. The number of collectors in natural history is considerable; while that of preservers is small indeed. The ruin of most of those repositories which are established at a great expence, and with immense trouble, may be solely ascribed to the negligence of their possessors. Visit your specimens once in a year, brush them over with fresh essence of turpentine, and you will preserve them from the depredations of insects. We can produce subjects which were stuffed more than twenty years ago, and yet retain their primitive freshness and beauty. The complete integrity of our herbals likewise affords a convincing proof, that regular attention will long preserve a collection unhurt, and in that state of freshness which at once pleases the eye and excites the astonishment of the beholder.'

Of the notes, we have to observe that they generally contain useful references, or extended illustrations of the text. The following curious incident is related in the 19th:

'Professor HENON having accompanied his veterinary pupils to *Mont-Cindre*, about three miles from Lyons, on an herborizing party, happened to direct his attention to a bird's nest on a tree of considerable height. Near the nest, he observed a thrush in a state of unusual agitation. Scarcely had he requested his young attendants to surround the tree, when they perceived at the foot of it a viper attempting to effect its escape. The professor, who charged them not to kill it, seized it by the head with a forked stick, opened it, and found in its body a young thrush, still alive, but besmeared with a whitish foam, which no doubt would speedily have terminated its existence. No sooner was the little creature rescued from bondage, than the mother ceased her convulsive motions, and quietly perched on the branches; and the professor caused the young thrush to be replaced beside its fellow nestling, which had escaped the viper's voracity.—Anxious to know the issue of the adventure, he marked the spot, and on the following day sent back two of his pupils, who reported that, having climbed the tree, they found both the young birds living.'

We trust that the reception of this unassuming but useful pamphlet will be such as will induce the authors to fulfill their intention of publishing two other works; the first intitled *the Philosophy of Ornithology;* and the second, *the Art of Stuffing Quadrupeds.*

Art. XIX. *Tableaux des Systêmes Généraux et Particuliers de Botanique,* &c.; *i. e.* A Review of the General and Particular Systems of Botany; comprizing, first, the Plan of each System; secondly, its Fundamental Principles; thirdly, its Advantages and Disadvantages; and, fourthly, a more particular Exposition of the Sexual System of *Linné.* To which are added, Two Memoirs on the Art of Drying and Preserving Plants, and on the different kinds of Vegetables which affect the Calcareous and Granitical Mountains in the Environs of Grenoble. By M. Mouton-Fontenille, Member of the Athenæum at Lyons, &c. 8vo. Lyons. 1801. Imported by de Boffe, London. Price 7s.

From the outlines of the author's plan, which present an expansion of the above title, we collect that his object is to lay before the public a French version of *Linné's Classes Plantarum,* with such changes and additions as the present state of botanical science may seem to require.

The first part of the work, which may be considered as only preparatory to the second, exhibits a clear and concise statement of 51 general systems. The 2d part, which occupies most of the volume, contains, 1*st,* A parallel view of the systems of *Tournefort* and *Linné;* 2*dly,* Reasons for adopting the *Systema Vegetabilium* as an essential part of a course of botanical study; 3*dly,* Notices of the *aberrations* of the sexual system; 4*thly,* A general explanation of its principles; 5*thly,* A more detailed explanation of its classes; 6*thly,* An indication of the classes, orders, and families, which may be referred to the natural orders; 7*thly,* The correspondence of the Linnéan classes and orders with those of the most celebrated systems; and, 8*thly,* An analysis of particular theories.

This second part is followed by 100 tables, of which the first presents those general principles which have been recognized in the structure of all botanical arrangements, whether of an universal or a particular nature. The second is allotted to the number and denominations of the divisions comprehended in the universal systems which are noticed in this volume. The last exhibits, in separate columns, the names, countries, times of birth and death, and the age of the respective founders of the theories which pass in review. The intermediate numbers of the tabular series display the outlines of the several systems, and the concordance of their parts with twenty-two natural families, designed *Gramineous*, *Rubiaceous*, *Aggregate*, *Borragineus*, *Umbelliferous*, *Liliaceous*, *Caryophylleus*, *Fruit trees*, *Ranunculeous*, *Labiate*, *Personate*, *Cruciform*, *Malvaceous*, *Leguminous*, *Compound*, *Orchides*, *Coniferous*, *Cucurbitaceous*, *Ferns*, *Mosses*, *Algæ*, and *Fungi*.

If an approximated view of the various modes of arranging the numerous vegetable tribes, which have been proposed by celebrated writers, can add little to our stock of botanical science, it may at least spare the curious student much time, expence, and labour. We deem it, then, superfluous to insist on the utility of an elementary work, which embraces the contents of many and rare publications. In point of execution, it is gratifying to remark that, if much has been promised, much also has been faithfully performed. We need scarcely say, that some hundred pages of abridged notices, lists of dates, and columns of scientific terms, afford little opportunity for the exercise of critical observation:—but a more copious sprinkling of biographical anecdote might have relieved the dryness of the first part; though it would also have added to the size of the volume. In the necrological table, we perceive a few more blanks than the author's opportunities of information would have led us to expect. To mention only one; we believe it to be pretty generally known that the unfortunate *Artedi* was born in 1705, and perished in 1735.

The first of the annexed memoirs may be considered as an important supplement to Dr. Withering's directions for drying and preserving plants. Such of our readers, however, as are desirous of availing themselves of the present writer's instructions, will not be satisfied with partial extracts, and will certainly find their account in having recourse to the original: while, to others, an abridgement of this paper would prove very *dry* entertainment.

Though the author's botanical excursions on the Alps of Dauphiny have furnished but a slender memoir, they have suggested some interesting particulars relating to the *locality* of plants; a subject which certainly merits more attention than it has hitherto obtained. The Alpine plants which occurred to his observation, and the respective heights of their habitations,

tions, are consigned to a separate catalogue, which terminates the volume.

From the warm terms in which the author commemorates the botanist's *harvest home*, and his completion of a hundred volumes of an admired herbal, it is easy to perceive that he is animated by that enthusiasm, without which nothing great was ever achieved in science or in virtue.

Art. XX. *L'Univers, Poëme en Prose*, &c. *i. e.* The Universe, a Poem in Prose, in Twelve Cantos, followed by Notes and Observations on the System of Newton, and the Physical Theory of the Earth; embellished with Engravings from *Raphael*, *Poussin*, *Fuesly*, and *Barbier;* with Vignettes after *Monnet* and *Lejeune*. 8vo. pp. 490. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London.

The author's design in this poem is to paint the universe considered under four great points of view; physical, moral, political, and religious. He acknowleges that the undertaking is above his powers: but can the *modesty* of this confession be reconciled with his subsequent declaration that the work was composed during his hours of leisure, as an amusement and relaxation, not as a serious and important concern?

In avowing his religion, the writer pretends to steer between the two quick-sands, atheism and superstition; theism is his belief; and, as parts of his system, he admits of a number of intelligences presiding over the universe. For instance, besides the Supreme Being,—Nature, the Genius of Fire, and the Divinity of the Waters, hold place in his universe; and, from no really religious principles, we apprehend, but merely to add to the variety and interest of his work, he borrows deities from antient systems, and in the action of the poem opposes the genius of evil to the genius of good. To diminish the repugnance created by this absurdity of hypothesis and fancifulness of conjecture, we did not expect the harmony of numbers, for that was not intended: but we were in hopes of finding variety of imagery, or vividness of description, or grandeur of design. The fact is, however, that the author has left the province of sense and reason, without entering the fairy regions of poetry; and we find in this case, as in many others, that a deviation from the common road is no mark or proof of the excentricity of genius.

We do not propose to give a regular analysis and formal examination of this work: though, if it deserved such attention, we should not grudge the labour. The first canto introduces the Deity revealing the secrets of nature and the springs of his machinery; and, lest the fervour of poetry should be chilled with the coldness of philosophical explanation, the latter is thrown into the notes: but the text contains much that reaches not the excellence of poetry, and some parts of the notes deserve not to be called philosophical.

Perhaps we want taste; and other readers may be delighted with the high sounding words and gorgeous descriptions of this poem. To us, however, it seems to contain more empty pageantry than real grandeur, phrases that fill the ear without elevating the imagination, and much elaborate description with little distinctness of imagery. That the author has read and thought considerably, the notes abundantly shew; yet here we complain of *verbiage*, of much unnecessary preamble, and of objections against the Newtonian theory, which, if they could have been forcible, have been weakened by extreme diffusion. Above all things, an objection against an established theory ought to be precisely and succinctly stated.

The writer particularly insists that the motions of comets furnish strong proofs against the principle of gravitation and the elliptical theory. If he wishes seriously to oppose Newton's doctrine, (and many Frenchmen have shewn a strong inclination to this effect,) he must prune, condense, and arrange. Newton is not destined to fall in "puny battle;" and of his theory we may say, as has already been said of an old mathematical hypothesis, "*Nisi validioribus impulsa machinis, in æternum foret inconcussa.*"

ERRATA in Vol. XXXIX.

Page 16. The prices of Art. II. should be 6l. 16s. 6d. and 10l. 2s.
117. l. 13. for '*Orcliata*', read *Ocellata.*
—— l. 25. for '*Seminamensis,*' read *Surinamensis.*
123. l. 25. for 'dismisses,' read *discusses.*
—— l. 34. for 'liting,' read *biting.*
125. l. 6. put a comma after '*Acrochordus.*'
126. l. 22. for 'gentleman,' read *gentlemen.*
—— note, for '*verrincose,*' read *verrucose;* and for '*subverrincose,*' read *subverrucose.*
273. l. 9. read *C. Fichtelii, & Searites Schroetteri.*
275. l. 21. for '*Calliuna,*' read *Calluna.*
313. l. 5. from bott. read 'most material *of the* plates,'
314. l. 18. for '*vulgarism,*' read *vulgarisms.*
333. l. 15. from bott. read *a* 'standard.'
412. l. 21. put a semicolon after '*detected,*'
—— l. 25. for 'Moitagu,' read *Montagu.*

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Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.

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